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Est. of Edward F. Brown

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PREFACE.

In preparing the present work, my intention has been to make it fulfil strictly the promise of its title. I have endeavored to put before the learner those matters which are of most essential consequence to him, those which will best serve him as preparation for further and deeper knowledge of his own language, for the study of other languages, and for that of language in general. That the leading object of the study of English grammar is to teach the correct use of English is, in my view, an error, and one which is gradually becoming removed, giving way to the sounder opinion that grammar is the reflective study of language, for a variety of purposes, of which correctness in writing is only one, and a secondary or subordinate one — by no means unimportant, but best attained when sought indirectly. It should be a pervading element in the whole school and home training of the young, to make them use their own tongue with accuracy and force; and, along with any special drilling directed to this end, some of the rudimentary distinctions and rules of grammar are conveniently taught; but that is not the study of grammar, and it will not bear the intrusion of much formal grammar without being spoiled for its own ends. It is constant use and practice, under never-failing watch and correction, that makes good writers and speakers; the application of direct authority is the most efficient correc-

tive. Grammar has its part to contribute, but rather in the higher than in the lower stages of the work. One must be a somewhat reflective user of language to amend even here and there a point by grammatical reasons; and no one ever changed from a bad speaker to a good one by applying the rules of grammar to what he said.

To teach English grammar to an English speaker is, as it seems to me, to take advantage of the fact that the pupil knows the facts of the language, in order to turn his attention to the underlying principles and relations, to the philosophy of language as illustrated in his own use of it, in a more effective manner than is otherwise possible. Foreign languages are generally acquired in an "artificial" way, the facts coming ticketed with certain grammatical labels which the scholar learns as if they were part of the facts themselves; and the grammar part is apt to remain long a wholly artificial system to him. Almost every one can remember the time when it first began to dawn upon his mind that the familiar terms and distinctions of grammar really meant something. But this is partly because children are (and with good reason) set to learning foreign languages before their reflective powers are enough developed to make such things intelligible to them. If the pupil is bright enough, his Latin grammar comes by degrees to be to him something more than a heap of dry bones; and then he gets the benefit, in its application by analogy to other languages, his own included, of the hard work he has done upon it. A real understanding of grammar, however, he can get sooner and more surely in connection with his own tongue than anywhere else, if his attention is first directed to that which most needs to be learned, unencumbered with burdensome detail, and if a clear method is followed, with abundance of illustration.

English grammar can in this way be made to pay back, with interest, the debt which it owes to Latin. It must be for practical use to show how far the endeavor to reach these ends is successful, in the work here put forth.

I have wished to give the main facts of the English language just as they are in themselves, not importing into them anything that belongs to other languages. With this in view, certain subjects have been treated in a somewhat new way, but one which will, I hope, commend itself to general approval by its reasonableness. The ordinary method with gender in nouns, for example, which was really an imposition upon English of a system of distinctions belonging elsewhere, has been abandoned in favor of one that is both truer and far simpler. The sharp distinction, again, of the verb-phrases or compound forms from the real verb-forms seems to me a matter of no small importance, if the study of the construction of sentences is to be made a reality.

It has been my constant endeavor to bear in mind the true position of the grammarian, as stated in the introductory chapter — that he is simply a recorder and arranger of the usages of language, and in no manner or degree a lawgiver; hardly even an arbiter or critic. Certainly, an elementary work is no place for dragging forward to attention matters of disputed usage, nor are elementary pupils the persons before whom to discuss nice and difficult points. Where reference has been made to any such subjects, it has been in order simply to set forth the facts of usage, as fairly and briefly as possible, or to state the principles that should govern the case.

Many grammars, of course, have been consulted in the preparation of this, and valuable hints have been derived from one and another. But I do not feel that I

need acknowledge particular obligation to any excepting the great thesaurus of Mätzner (Berlin, 1873 – 5 : there is an English version, but it is hardly to be used), to which I have constantly referred ; especially drawing upon its rich stores of citations illustrating almost every conceivable point of English usage, for the benefit of the parsing exercises which are appended to the various chapters. In the body of the work, I have preferred to use almost exclusively illustrations made off-hand, because such seemed to me more desirable : the more familiar and every-day the exemplifications of principles, the better ; and the pupil should be led to form them for himself as much as possible.

I have also for the most part avoided the use of set rules, lest they should come to be applied mechanically. In studying the grammar of one's own language, the true end is not attained unless such a real understanding is gained by the scholar that he can state in his own language the principle involved ; and he should be made, or helped, to do so.

My thanks are due to several eminent scholars, among my colleagues and elsewhere, who have been kind enough to give me the benefit of their counsel during the progress of my work.

W. D. W.

YALE COLLEGE, NEW HAVEN, CONN.,
January, 1877.

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ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY: LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

1. The English language is the language used by the people of England, and by all who speak like them anywhere else in the world; for example, in the United States.

2. There are hundreds and hundreds of different languages in the world, and the only way we can define any one of them is to say: "It is the language used in such and such a region, or by such and such people." The people from whom our language gets its name are those living in England. Their forefathers came to that country from the northern shore of Germany, about 1500 years ago, and drove out or destroyed the people who had lived in the country before, and who had spoken a very different language (much like what the Welsh, the language of Wales, is nowadays).

3. Because the English language was brought from Germany into England, being then only a dialect of German, it is still very much like the languages of Germany, and is for this reason often called a GERMANIC language (or a TEUTONIC, which means the same thing). And all the Germanic languages, along with most of the others in Europe, and a part of those of Asia, form a great body of languages resembling one another, and hence called a "family" — the INDO-EUROPEAN (or the ARYAN) family.

4. The English-speaking people of England were conquered in the eleventh century by the Normans, a French-speaking people;

and, by the mixture of the two, their speech also came to be somewhat mixed, so that a part of our English comes from Germany and another large part from France, to say nothing of the words we have gotten from yet other sources.

5. The English also conquered and settled other countries: the southern part of Scotland, and, a good deal later, most of Ireland; and they have sent out colonies to all parts of the world, which of course carried their English language with them, far out of England. Some of these colonies have become great nations; so, especially, that in North America has grown and increased until it is as numerous a people as the English of England. Thus the English language is now used by many more people out of England than in it; but it still keeps everywhere its old name.

6. Our English, however, is by no means the same language that has always gone by that name, nor is it now used alike by all the people who speak it.

7. The language first brought from Northern Germany to England was so different from ours that we should not understand it at all if we heard it spoken; and we cannot learn to read it without as much study as it costs us, for example, to read French or German. The reason is, that every living language is all the time changing. Some old words go out of use; other new words come into use; some change their meaning; all, or almost all, change their pronunciation; and our phrases, also, the ways in which we put words together to express our thoughts, become by degrees different. Such changes are sometimes very slow; but they are all the time going on, everywhere. A thousand years hence, if it lives so long, the English will be so far unlike what it now is that we, if we were to come to life again, should perhaps not understand it without a good deal of trouble.

8. The oldest English that we know anything of, the English of the time of King Alfred and thereabouts (a thousand years ago), we generally call ANGLO-SAXON, to distinguish it from that

of later times; and there are other names — such as Old English, Early English — for the language of times between Alfred's and our own.

When we say simply "English," we mean the language of our time, such as we ourselves understand and use.

9. But there are considerable differences in the language even of English speakers at the present day.

Thus, almost every region has some peculiarities in the way in which its speakers use their English.

There are, for example, the peculiarities of the English of Ireland, noticed by us in the Irish emigrant; those of the English of Scotland, seen in the poetry of Burns, the stories of Scott, and other such places; and those of the negro English of the Southern United States. And, in general, an Englishman can tell an American, and an American can tell an Englishman, by the way he talks.

When these peculiarities amount to so much that they begin to interfere a little with our understanding the persons who have them, we say that such persons speak a DIALECT of English, rather than English itself.

10. Then there is also the difference between what we call "good English" and "bad English."

By good English we mean those words, and those meanings of them, and those ways of putting them together, which are used by the best speakers, the people of best education; everything which such people do not use, or use in another way, is bad English. Thus bad English is simply that which is not approved and accepted by good and careful speakers.

Every one who speaks any language "naturally," as we call it, has really learned it from those whom he heard speak around him as he was growing up. But he is liable to learn it ill, forming bad and incorrect habits of speech; or he may learn it from those who have themselves learned it ill, and may copy their bad

habits. There are, indeed, very few who do not, while they are learning to speak, acquire some wrong ways, which they have to correct afterwards.

It is partly in order to help in this process of correcting bad habits, that the good and approved usages of a language are collected and set forth in a book which is called a "grammar."

11. Hence, the English language, as made the subject of a grammar, means the English of the present day, as used by good speakers and writers; and English grammar is a description of the usages of the English language in this sense.

A description of one of the earlier forms of English (as the Anglo-Saxon, or the Middle English), or of one of the dialects of English (as the Scottish, or the Yorkshire, or the negro English), or of one of the forms of bad English (as the thieves' slang), would also be an English grammar, but in a different sense; and we should not call it simply an English grammar, but should give it some different name, which would tell precisely what it was.

12. Grammar does not at all make rules and laws for language; it only reports the facts of good language, and in an orderly way, so that they may be easily referred to, or learned, by any one who has occasion to do so.

13. Nor is the study of the grammar of one's own native language by any means *necessary*, in order to correctness of speech. Most persons learn good English in the same way that they learn English at all, — namely, by hearing and reading; by hearing and imitating good speakers, by studying books written correctly and well, by correcting themselves and being corrected by others, and so on. But attention to the rules of good usage as laid down in grammars, with illustrations and practical exercises, often helps and hastens this process; and it is especially useful to those who have been unfortunate enough to learn at first a bad kind of English.

14. Then there are many other respects in which the study of grammar is useful.

The learning of language is made up of many different parts; and it is never finished. It begins in infancy, and lasts all our lives. The most learned and able never get through with adding to their knowledge, even of their own language, and to their power to use it.

At the very beginning of language-learning, we have to learn to understand the words which we hear others make. Then we learn to make them ourselves, and to put them together correctly — that is, in the same way that others do — in order to express our thoughts and feelings. A little later, we have to learn to understand them as they are put before our eyes, written or printed; and then to make them in the same way, — that is, to read and spell and write: and this also correctly, or as other people do. But then we want to use our English not only correctly, but well, so as to please and influence others. Many of us, too, want to learn other languages than English, languages which answer the same purposes as our own, but have other means of doing it. Or, we want to study some of the other forms of English, and to compare them with our own, so as to understand better what it is, and how it came to be what it is. We are not content, either, with merely using language; we want to know something of what language is, and realize what it is worth to us. The study of language has a great deal to tell us about the history of man, and of what he has done in the world. And as language is the instrument of the mind's operations, and the principal means by which they are disclosed, we cannot study the mind's workings and its nature without a thorough understanding of language.

15. For all these purposes, we need to have that sort of knowledge of language to which the study of grammar is the first step, and to which a study of the grammar of our own language is the easiest and the surest step.

CHAPTER II.

THE SENTENCE; THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

16. Our language, like every other, is made up of words. Each word has its own particular part to play in the work of expressing our thoughts: its own meanings, and its own ways of being used along with other words.

17. Thus, for example, **sun, moon, star** are the names of objects.

But **shine, move, twinkle** are of quite another character: they are not names; they are words which we put with names like those given above, to state or declare something about the objects to which the names belong: as when we say

the sun shines; the moon moves; the stars twinkle.

The word **the,** again, in these sentences, is unlike the others; it neither names anything nor declares anything; it is never used except before a name, like **sun,** etc.

We may say, further,

the golden sun shines brightly.

Here **golden** and **brightly** are words of yet other kinds; each may be used in its own ways, but not in those of the others. And so it is with all our words.

18. But not every word is different from all the rest in its uses.

There are a great many names of things which we use in the same way with **sun.**

There are a great many words used in the same way with **shines,** to declare something.

There are a great many used as **golden** is used, or **brightly.**

The words which are thus used alike we put together into classes, and give each class a name.

19. The classes into which our words are divided, according to their uses, are called the

PARTS OF SPEECH;

and every word, as belonging to one or another class, as having a certain kind of use, is called a PART OF SPEECH.

20. This name, "part of speech," given to a word, plainly implies that there is something incomplete about it; that it is not a whole, but must be joined with other "parts" in order to make a whole, or in order to be speech.

That is in fact the case; and the whole which these parts make up is the SENTENCE.

21. All our speech, as we actually use it in talking or writing, is in sentences; we do not really say anything unless we make a sentence.

If, for example, we speak the words **sun, tree, ink, goodness, he,** we are only mentioning something; any one who hears us will naturally ask, "Well; what about it?"

So if we say **shines,** or **stands,** or **writes,** or **went:** the natural question is, "What shines?" and so on.

So, too, if we say **the, with, golden, brightly, away, tall.**

But if we say

the sun shines;	**the tree is tall;**
he writes with ink;	**they went away;**

we have really said something. It may be very uninteresting; it may be foolish; it may even be false; but it is at any rate something said; the person to whom we speak does not need to wait for it to be finished in order to approve or reject it. We have thought something and said it; we have made up our mind to some purpose or other and told what it is; we have (as it is

called) formed an opinion or judgment, and expressed it by a sentence.

A sentence is, then, in the sense thus explained, the expression of a judgment.

22. Strictly speaking, this definition is true only of one kind of sentence: the ASSERTIVE sentence, as it is called, or that by which we assert something, declare something to be so and so. There are two other kinds of sentence: one, the INTERROGATIVE, asking a question: thus,

does the sun shine?

and the other, the IMPERATIVE, giving a command: thus,

shine out brightly, sun!

But the kind which we have been describing is the regular and by far the most common one, and the other two will be best treated afterward, as variations of it.

In going on, therefore, to speak of the sentence, we shall consider only the first kind, leaving the second and third until later.

23. In order to form a sentence, we have to use words of more than one kind. Every complete act of speech is made up of at least two parts of speech. We cannot produce a sentence by stringing together words of one sort only: for example,

sun tree ink; shines writes went;
the this yonder; good golden bright.

Nor, again, can we take words of different sorts at haphazard out of a dictionary or spelling-book, and make of them sentences — even foolish or false sentences. Thus

the with golden brightly away;
shines over is toward tall never.

This would be like trying to make an instrument, or a piece of furniture, out of materials picked up at random and having no adaptation to one another. For a sentence

there must be not only words of more than one kind, but words of certain kinds, fitted together in certain ways.

24. As the sentence is a combination of words by which we declare something to be so and so, or assert that something is true about something, there must be in every sentence two parts or members: one naming the thing about which we make our declaration or assertion, and one expressing what we declare or assert of the thing named.

Thus, in the sentence

the sun shines,

the words **the sun** tell what we make our assertion about, and we assert about the sun that it **shines**: **shines** expresses what we declare to be true of the thing expressed by **the sun.**

25. These two necessary parts of the sentence we call the SUBJECT and the PREDICATE (*predicate* is only a more learned and harder name for 'thing asserted or declared').

We cannot, in the nature of things, make a complete sentence without joining together a subject and a predicate. But a sentence does not need to contain more than two words, one for each of the two parts or members. For example,

gold glitters; horses run; paper burns;
George reads; I stand; they wrote;

are so many complete sentences, the former word in each being its subject, and the latter its predicate.

26. On the other hand, we may use two, or three, or many words in naming and describing the thing about which we are going to make our assertion, and as many more in making the assertion; and the sentence may still be divided into the same two parts.

Thus, in

my father's beautiful black horses run every day down the hill to the brook for water,

the first five words — **my father's beautiful black horses** — are the subject, because all of them taken together name that about which the assertion is made; and the other eleven words are the predicate, because they all combine to form the assertion, telling what is done by the horses we have described.

27. We have, then, this rule:

A *sentence* is composed of two parts: 1. the *subject*, signifying that about which the assertion is made; and 2. the *predicate*, signifying that which is asserted of the subject.

Now we have to look to see what kinds of words, what parts of speech, are put together thus to form the simplest sentence, the sentence composed of only two words.

28. A word that can be used as

glitters, run, burns, reads, stand, wrote

are used in the little sentences given above, is called a VERB (the word *verb* is Latin for 'word' simply).

A verb is a word that asserts or declares; and any word that does that is a verb.

Hence, we cannot make a sentence without using a verb; the predicate of the sentence (as we have called it above) must be a verb; and we cannot describe a verb truly except by saying that it is a kind of word which goes with the name of something to declare, or help declare, something about it; it can be used as the predicate of a sentence.

This cannot be too much insisted on, as the definitions given of a verb are often wholly erroneous.

A verb, as we have seen, does not necessarily stand alone as predicate; instead of **shines**, we can say **is shining**, or **is brilliant**, or **sends down rays**, and so on, which mean nearly the same thing; but in these phrases the **is** and **sends** are verbs; words like **shining, brilliant, rays**, cannot make an assertion without a verb added. And, of however many words a predicate may be composed — as in **run every day down the hill to the brook for**

water — it must always have in it, as its essential part, a verb — as **run**: simply because a verb is a word that asserts.

29. Thus we have the definition:

A *verb* is a word that asserts or declares, and hence that can stand, alone or with other words, as the predicate of a sentence.

30. When a predicate is composed of two or more words, we call the simple verb in it the BARE predicate, and this along with the rest the COMPLETE predicate.

We shall see hereafter (**350**) that some verbs are very rarely used alone as predicate, but are made complete predicates by other words added to them, which are called their COMPLEMENT (that is, 'completing part'). And there are no verbs which may not take a complement of some kind.

31. The other words in most of our little sentences of two words each — namely, **gold, horses, paper, George** — are each of them what is called a NOUN.

Noun means simply 'name.'

All these nouns are names of objects that we can see. Others, as **sound, noise, thunder, odor,** are names of things which we perceive by other senses. Yet others, as **mind, life,** are names of what we can only think about, objects of thought. Others still, as **height, roundness, beauty, courage,** are names of the qualities of objects. There are many different classes of nouns, but they are all alike names, and they can all be used as subject of a sentence; they can be put along with a verb to make an assertion; they express anything that we can declare something about.

32. Thus we have the definition:

A *noun* is the name of anything, a word that can stand, alone or with other words, as the subject of a sentence.

33. But while a verb was the only kind of word, or part of speech, that could be used as a predicate in a sentence, a noun is not the only one that can be used as a subject.

We had also the little sentences

I stand, they wrote,

where **I** and **they** are subjects; and these are words of so peculiar kind that they are not called nouns, but are made a class, or part of speech, by themselves, and are called PRONOUNS: other words of the class are

we, you, he, she, it, this, who.

The word *pronoun* means 'standing for a noun.' And these are, in fact, a kind of additional set of names for objects, which may be used instead of the nouns, their ordinary names. They do not precisely name objects; but they point them out, where the circumstances show plainly enough what is referred to. Thus, instead of saying

the sun shines,

we may say

it shines,

if we have spoken before of the sun, in a way that makes plain what **it** means. In like manner, having said

George is studious,

we may add

he reads,

meaning 'George reads.' Or, speaking to George himself and not to any one else, we may say

you read;

and George may say, referring to himself,

I read.

We can, in this way, say **he** or **she** or **it** of every single object that has a name, any object that we can speak of by a noun; to any one that we can speak to, we may say **you**; and any one of them that can speak of itself may call itself **I**.

Thus the pronouns are a sort of universal names, or universal substitutes, under special circumstances, for ordinary names. Accordingly, while there are hundreds and thousands of ordinary names, or nouns, there are only a few, a dozen or so, of these

substitutes; but they are used far more often than any nouns are used.

34. Thus we have the definition:

A *pronoun* is a word standing for a noun or ordinary name, and may, like a noun, be used as subject of a sentence.

35. Both nouns and pronouns have other uses besides that of standing as subject; these will be pointed out hereafter. It will also be shown that words which are usually other parts of speech are sometimes used as if they were nouns. Such a word is then said to be used SUBSTANTIVELY. SUBSTANTIVE is another name for a noun.

The word *noun* was formerly much used, and is still sometimes used, as a name for both nouns and adjectives, the former being distinguished as *nouns substantive*, or *substantives*, and the latter as *nouns adjective*, or *adjectives*.

36. These three parts of speech — the noun and pronoun on the one hand and the verb on the other — are the principal, the independent, ones. They do not need to lean on anything else; they can form sentences without help from other parts of speech.

[See Exercise I., at the end of the chapter.]

Next we have to look at two other kinds of word which are of a different character, which do not by themselves, or directly, form either the subject or the predicate of a sentence, but only as they are put along with something else, to which they belong.

37. The word **the**, in

the sun shines,

is such a part of speech; it can only be used along with a noun, as an appendage to the noun. Other examples are **golden** and **white**, in

the golden sun shines; white paper burns;

each is added to a noun — **sun** or **paper** — to describe the thing of which the noun is the name, to express some quality as belonging to it.

A word thus used is called an ADJECTIVE: its name *adjective* signifies merely something 'added'—that is, added to a noun by way of description.

38. Because the adjective thus defines a *quality* as belonging to the thing expressed by the noun, it is said to QUALIFY the noun. Or, again, as the addition of the adjective changes more or less the value of the noun, it is also said to MODIFY (that is, 'change somewhat') the noun.

Thus, by **paper** we mean paper in general, without any restriction; but to say **a paper**, or **this paper**, or **white paper**, limits the application of **paper** to one particular kind, or it may be one particular piece, of paper.

If, again, we say

men love pleasures,

we seem to mean all men and all pleasures; but if we say

good men love honest pleasures,

we make our statement more definite, and therefore narrower; we restrict it to the smaller class of men who are good, leaving out the bad, and to the smaller class of pleasures that are honest, leaving out the dishonest.

If, once more, we speak of

tall stiff black hats,

we first limit the general name **hats** to that class of hats that are black, then the name **black hats** to that class that are stiff, then the name **stiff black hats** to that class that are tall; and we might, by putting **his** before the whole, reduce the still numerous class of stiff black hats to the two or three which some particular person owns.

Hence an adjective is also said to LIMIT a noun, or is called a LIMITING word; it limits simply because it describes or defines.

39. Thus we have the definition:

An *adjective* is a word used to qualify a noun—that is, to describe or limit the meaning of a noun.

40. There is no assertion or declaration implied in an adjective, any more than in a noun; a noun and an adjective joined together will never make a sentence: thus,

sun golden, stars shining, enemies beaten.

But we can make either an adjective or a noun a part of the assertion about a noun or pronoun, if we join the two together by a verb (**28**). The verb which we especially use for this purpose is **be**. Thus, for example,

the sun is golden;	**his stiff black hat was tall;**
this paper is white;	**the man was a soldier;**
their hats are black;	**we were Roman citizens.**

A word which in this way, by help of a verb, is made a part of the predication or assertion about a subject, is called a PREDICATE adjective or noun (**352**).

An adjective used as predicate qualifies a pronoun as freely as a noun: thus,

he is white;	**it was tall;**
we are beaten;	**they were running.**

[See Exercise II., at the end of the chapter.]

41. There is also another class of words, used to qualify or describe the other member of the simple sentence, the verb. If we say

the sun shines brightly, or **shines now**, or **shines above**,

the words **brightly, now, above** tell something about the manner, or place, or time, of the action expressed by **shines**; they describe or limit, in one way or another, the shining which we have asserted of the sun. So in

horses run swiftly, George reads sometimes,
he stands there,

the words **swiftly, sometimes,** and **there** are used in the same way to define the action or condition asserted by the verb.

A word thus used is called an ADVERB, because it is *added* to a *verb*, in much the same way and for the same purpose as the adjective is added to the noun.

But most adverbs are also capable of being used to qualify adjectives: thus,

the brightly shining sun, a truly faithful friend,
a very cold day, a perhaps false report;

and some even qualify another adverb: thus,

very brightly shining, quite often seen.

42. We have, then, the definition:

An *adverb* is a word used to qualify a verb, or also an adjective, and sometimes another adverb.

43. The adjective and the adverb are thus the two parts of speech which are used to accompany, to describe or qualify or limit, another word.

[See Exercise III., at the end of the chapter.]

Then there are also two parts of speech which are used to connect other words together, and even to connect sentences together.

44. We noticed above only one of the uses of the noun or pronoun, namely, that of serving as subject of a sentence. Now we have also to observe that a noun or pronoun can be used like an adjective to qualify another noun, or like an adverb to qualify a verb or adjective, if it be connected with the word which it is to qualify by a word like **of, to, from, in, with, by,** and so on.

Thus,

a box of wood
is the same thing as
a wooden box;

a man in distress
is the same as
a distressed man;

an emigrant from Ireland
is the same as
an Irish emigrant;

he walks with grace
is the same thing as
he walks gracefully;

he speaks with distinctness
is the same as
he speaks distinctly:

and in

good for food, faithful till death, tired of walking,

the qualification of the adjective is quite of the same kind as would be made by an adverb.

These connecting words, now, are called PREPOSITIONS; the word means simply 'placed before'; and they are in fact usually placed before the noun or pronoun which they are to connect to another word (just as they are often prefixed to a verb, or placed before it, to make a compound verb — as in **withstand, outvie, underlie**).

45. Each preposition makes the noun or pronoun which it joins on to another word qualify that other in some particular way: that is, it defines a certain kind of relation as existing between the two words. Thus, **of** most often shows possession, or connects the name of a possessor with that of a thing possessed, as in

the palace of the king;

by shows the relation of nearness, as in

he sits by the wall,

or of means, as in

he lives by begging;

from shows the relation of removal, as in

far from home;

under and **over** show relations of place, as in

the picture hangs under the ceiling over the table;

and so on.

And the prepositions are used with pronouns just as with nouns: thus,

I went with him; good for her;
far from you; some of us.

46. Thus we have the definition:

A *preposition* is a word which joins a noun or pronoun to some other word — a verb, an adjective, another noun or pronoun — showing the relation between them.

A preposition is not quite so distinctly definable as the preceding parts of speech; it is best understood by help of much illustration, using the commonest words of the class, like **of, from, to, in, by, with, for.**

[See Exercise IV., at the end of the chapter.]

47. The other kind of connecting word is called a CONJUNCTION: that is, a word that 'conjoins' or 'joins together.'

Its most customary and proper use is to join different sentences together: thus,

he went and I came;
we spoke but they said nothing;
she blushed because she was ashamed;
she played while they danced.

Sometimes, like **and** and **but** in these sentences, the conjunction does hardly more than add one sentence on to another; sometimes, like **because** and **while**, it shows the second sentence to stand in a certain relation to the first: a relation of which the nature is defined or made clear by the conjunction. Thus **because** shows **she was ashamed** to be the *cause* of the blushing; **while** shows the dancing to have *accompanied* the playing; and so on.

But some of the most common conjunctions, especially **and**, are also used to connect in the same sentence words that are the same part of speech and are used in the same way in the sentence: thus,

he and I came; a great and good man;
a proud though childlike form; poor but honest parents;
by and with their consent.

48. Thus we have the definition:

A *conjunction* is a word used to connect sentences together; or, also, words used in the same way in a sentence.

[See Exercise V., at the end of the chapter.]

49. The seven kinds of words thus described and defined are the parts of speech; there are no other classes having a use in forming sentences different enough from these to make us classify them as separate parts of speech. As we have seen already, they fall among themselves into three well-marked divisions: these are

1. The three independent parts of speech, the ***noun***, the ***pronoun***, and the ***verb***, capable of forming sentences without the others;

2. The two qualifiers, ***adjective*** and ***adverb***, always attached to some other word, which they describe or limit; and

3. The two connectives, ***preposition*** and ***conjunction***, which join one word or sentence to another.

50. But we must notice here that there is yet another class of words, used in exclamation, which are usually reckoned as a part of speech, and called INTERJECTIONS. Examples of them are

oh! ah! fie! pshaw! hola!

The name ***interjection*** signifies something that is *interjected*, or 'thrown into the midst of' something else; and this something else is the sentence, as made up of the other parts of speech.

Calling them thus, then, implies that they are not parts of the sentence itself; they are not put together with other parts to make up sentences. And this is in fact the case. Hence, though it is proper enough, because convenient, to call the interjections a part of speech, they are not so in the same sense as the others. Each interjection is in a certain way an undivided sentence, put in the language of feeling rather than in that of reason.

51. We add, then, the definition:

An *interjection* is an exclamation, expressive of feeling; it does not combine with other words to form a sentence, and so is not in the same sense with the rest a part of speech.

52. Sometimes the little words **a** or **an** and **the**, which are called the ARTICLES, are reckoned as a separate part of speech; but, as they always qualify nouns, they are really only a peculiar kind of adjective.

Again, the words **one, two, three,** and so on, which we call NUMERALS, because they express *number*, or are used in *numerating* or counting, have also their peculiarities; yet they are no part of speech by themselves, because their uses are always those either of nouns or of adjectives.

And we shall have to notice hereafter one or two other such cases.

53. As noticed above (**23**), we use, besides the assertive, sentences of two other kinds, interrogative and imperative, or questions and commands.

54. By an INTERROGATIVE sentence, or question, we express a desire to know something. But, instead of putting it in the form of a statement, 'I desire to know,' or 'I wish you to tell me,' such and such a thing, we make known our wish by a peculiar form of sentence: usually by putting the subject noun or pronoun after the verb: thus,

have you any fish? was he there? will she go?

There are also special classes of *interrogative* words (see below, **169, 209, 313 e**), pronouns or adjectives or adverbs, which have in themselves a question-asking meaning: thus,

who was there? why did he come?
by what route did he arrive?

55. By an IMPERATIVE sentence we express our will or wish that a thing be so and so; we give a command to somebody. This is done by using a certain form of the verb, hence called the *imperative* mode (below, **233**): thus,

give me the fish! go away from here!

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER II.

FOR DETERMINING AND DEFINING THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

The sentences in all the exercises given are to be divided by the pupils into subject and predicate; if written, the division may conveniently be made by drawing a perpendicular line between the two: thus,

the sun | shines; he | writes with ink.

If either the subject or the predicate contains more than one word, the bare subject, the subject noun or pronoun, and the bare predicate, the verb, should be pointed out; if written, they may be underscored: thus,

the bright stars | twinkle; the rain | falls from the cloud.

In the exercises on this chapter, the part of speech of each word in every sentence is to be stated, and the reason or definition for it given.

I. Bare subject and predicate: §§ 16–36.

Fire burns. Winds blow. Gold glitters. Stars twinkle. I walk. He rides. Boys run. Girls dance. Wheat grows. They fly. Time flies. Children sing. Doors swing. Clocks tick. Rain falls. Smoke rises. Heat melts. She came. It shone. We looked.

II. With adjectives added: §§ 37–40.

The cold winds blow. The winds are cold. The hot fire burns. It is hot. A pelting rain falls. Happy boys run. These children sing. These girls are happy. Life is short. The yellow gold glitters. The day is rainy. The night was dark. He was riding. You are walking. The old clock ticks. I am hungry.

III. With adverbs added: §§ 41–43.

Cold winds blow keenly. This fire is very hot. Your children sing sweetly. The hungry dog barked suddenly. I walk often. We ride seldom. This rainy night is exceedingly dark. The day is very unusually hot. Leaves fall down. The old wooden clock ticks always loudly.

IV. With prepositions added: §§ 44–46.

The bright stars twinkle in the sky. The boy ran fast after the ball. We go to school. She stays sometimes at home. The

dark smoke rises in the air from the tall chimney. The leaf fell from the tree to the ground. The night is dark with clouds. He rides on his horse. A hot fire of coals is burning. The dogs barked loudly in the distant village. A clock of wood ticked on the wall. The clouds are heavy with rain. Ice melts soon in the heat of the fire. The happy children of our teacher sing sweetly enough from their book of hymns. The winds of winter are cold.

V. With conjunctions: §§ 47–48.

In writing out and dividing into subject and predicate such sentences as are connected by conjunctions, the dividing lines of the two (or more) sentences may be set one above the other, and the conjunction between them: thus,

we | laughed loudly,
but
they | were silent.

the bright stars | twinkle
when
the sky | is clear.

I went to school and she stayed at home. The dog barked at the boy, and he ran away. They listened with attention while I spoke to them. The day is warm if the sun shines. He sang till he was hoarse and we were tired. The smoke rises in the air because it is light. The boy went to the playground when the bell rang. He and I go to school together. The white snow lies on the high hills and in the deep valleys. You ride on the road, but we walk through the fields.

Scholars should be made to form, by themselves or under the direction of the teacher, many illustrative sentences of the same kind as those given here. Especially, they should be practised in making a bare sentence of two words as a starting-point, and filling it out by adding other parts of speech to its subject and predicate, defining the character and purpose of each addition as made.

VI. Miscellaneous examples on the chapter.

In order that the sentences may be properly divided into subject and predicate, they should, if necessary, be re-arranged, the words being put into the more usual order. Thus:

The glimmering landscape | fades now on the sight;
Tumult and affright | was by the yellow Tiber.

The borrower is servant to the lender.
Procrastination is the thief of time.
Grace was in all her steps.

Out of the abundance of the heart the mouth speaketh.
No work is a disgrace; the true disgrace is idleness.
Stolen waters are sweet, and bread eaten in secret is pleasant.
The child is father to the man.
Surely in vain the net is spread in the sight of any bird.
The lowing herd winds slowly o'er the lea.
Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.
By the yellow Tiber was tumult and affright.
Industry is the road to wealth.
Above it stood the seraphs.
The morning-stars sang together, and all the sons of God shouted for joy.

We silently gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

Soft and pale is the moony beam,
Moveless still is the glassy stream;
The wave is clear; the beach is bright
With snowy shells and sparkling stones;
The shore-surge comes in ripples light.

An hour passed on; the Turk awoke;
That bright dream was his last.

The way was long; the wind was cold;
The minstrel was infirm and old.

CHAPTER III.

INFLECTION.

56. We have learned now to distinguish the parts of speech, according to the different ways in which they are used when we put words together to make a sentence.

Next we have to notice certain changes of form which some of them undergo, according to differences in their meaning, or differences in the connection in which they are used.

57. Let us take as examples the little sentences:

the man learns;	**I go;**
the horse runs;	**he was.**

Here **man** and **horse** are nouns (**32**), and **I** and **he** are pronouns (**34**), and each noun has before it an article (**52**); and each noun or pronoun is the subject (**27**) of the sentence in which it is used. And **learns, runs, go, was** are verbs (**29**), and each is the predicate (**27**) in its own sentence.

Now every one of these words may change its form a little, in order to mean something a little different from what it now means.

58. Thus, if we want to speak not of one **man** only, but of more than one, we alter the sound of it (and hence also the spelling), and say **men.**

If we want to speak of more than one **horse,** we add another syllable, ending with **s,** and say **horses.**

If, instead of myself alone, I speak of a number of persons of whom I am one, I change **I** to **we,** and say **we go.** And in the same way we change **he** to **they.**

Here, then, is a set of changes in the form of nouns and pronouns, made in order to show a difference in the *number* of objects meant, whether a single one or more than one. Hence we call it a change for NUMBER; and we say that **man, horse, I,** and **he** are of the SINGULAR number (*singular* means 'single'), and that **men, horses, we,** and **they** are of the PLURAL number (*plural* comes from the Latin word *plus*, 'more,' and so means 'more than one').

What is true of these nouns and pronouns is true also of nearly all the rest; we do not use precisely the same word when we mean one and when we mean more than one. Other examples are

book, books; mind, minds; eye, eyes; beauty, beauties;
ox, oxen; foot, feet; mouse, mice; she or **it, they;**
this, these; that, those.

That is to say, our nouns and pronouns in general have two number-forms, one singular and the other plural.

59. But if in these little sentences we use the plural forms as subjects instead of the singular, we cannot always use the same forms of the verb as predicates: thus, compare

the man learns;	**the men learn;**
the horse runs;	**the horses run;**
he was;	**they were;**

although, in the other case, we say both

I go and **we go.**

This change in the verb, when it is made, does not, it is true, show a difference of meaning in the same sense as the change in the noun; for we cannot really say that the act of learning or running, or the condition of being, is in itself different according as one person or thing, or more than one, take part in it. The change is, rather, a mere consequence of the change of meaning of the nouns. We have sometimes (not by any means always)

different forms of our verbs, one of which we are accustomed to use along with a singular subject, and another along with a plural subject. It would be just as much a violation of good English usage to say

the man learn,	**the men learns,**
he have,	**they has,**
I are,	**we am,**

and the like, as to use **man** and **he** and **I** when we mean more than one person, or **men** and **they** and **we** when we mean only one.

60. We say, therefore, that the verb also has sometimes two forms, one for use with a subject that is singular, and the other for use with a subject that is plural; and these forms we call the singular and plural number-forms of the verb itself.

And, as the distinction of their use does not depend on anything in the meaning of the verb itself, but only on the character of the subject, we speak of the subject, whether noun or pronoun, as directing or GOVERNING in the matter; the subject being given, the verb is *compelled* to AGREE with it in respect to number.

These words, GOVERNMENT and AGREEMENT, are much used in grammar, and this is their simple meaning.

There is yet another matter in relation to which they have to be used about the verb and its subject.

61. If we use as subjects the three pronouns, **I, thou, he** (or **she** or **it**), the verb used along with each is generally different: thus,

I learn; thou learnest; he learns.

Here, again, there is nothing changed in the action of *learning* signified by the verb; the real change is only in the character of its subject. **I** is always used by a person speaking, to signify himself; **thou,** to signify the person to

whom he is speaking; **he** (or **she** or **it**), to signify any person (or thing) other than himself or than the person to whom he is speaking — that is, any person or thing spoken of. This difference in the pronouns is called a difference of PERSON; and, in order to distinguish them from one another, we call (**153**) **I** the pronoun of the FIRST PERSON, **thou** (or **you**) the pronoun of the SECOND PERSON, and **he** (or **she** or **it**) the pronoun of the THIRD PERSON.

62. Hence we say, as before, that the verb has sometimes three person-forms, for use with subjects of the first, second, and third persons respectively; and these forms we call the first, second, and third persons of the verb itself.

And here, again, it is the subject that GOVERNS, or determines what the form of the verb must be, in respect to person as well as number; the subject being given, the verb is made to AGREE with it in both person and number.

63. A verb, we may notice here, is of the first or of the second person only when its subject is a pronoun of the first or of the second person. Every noun has the verb in the third person: thus,

John learns; Mary learns; the dog learns.

64. But the verb has also (as well as the noun) changes of form to mark real differences of meaning. Our verbs **learns, runs, go** (in the sentences given as examples above) have to be altered if we wish distinctly to say that the actions of *learning, running, going* took place some time ago, at some moment in the past. In that case, we should say

the man learned; the horse ran; I went.

Thus we make by a change of form of the verb a distinction of the *time* of the action, as past or present. This is called a distinction of TENSE (the name *tense* is an al-

tered form of the Latin word for 'time,' *tempus*); and **learns, runs, go** are said to be of the PRESENT tense, while **learned, ran, went** are said to be of the PAST or PRETERIT tense (*preterit* is a Latin word for 'gone by, past').

The use of the different tenses of the verb does not depend, like that of the different numbers and persons, on the character of any other word with which the verb is joined, but only on the difference of the meaning which we want to express.

65. One other difference of meaning is made, much less often, by a change in the form of the verb. We say

he was here,
but **if he were here, I should be glad;**

he is angry,
but **though he be angry, he will not show it;**

he learns his lesson,
but **whether he learn it or not I do not care.**

This is called a distinction of MODE (or MOOD; it is a Latin word meaning 'manner'): that is, of the *manner* of viewing the action expressed by the verb, whether as actual or as doubtful, questionable, dependent on a condition. And **were, be, learn** in these sentences are said to be of the SUBJUNCTIVE mode (*subjunctive* meaning 'subjoined,' in the sense of 'dependent'); while, as distintinguished from them, the forms **was, is, learns** are said to be of the INDICATIVE mode (simply 'pointing out' or stating).

The subjunctive was used in English a great deal more formerly than it is used at present (**234**).

The form of the verb used in imperative sentences (**55**) is also called the IMPERATIVE mode (**233**).

66. This change in the form of any word, either to show

changes of its own meaning or to adapt it to be used along with the different forms of other words, is called its INFLECTION (the name means 'bending into a different shape,' adaptation); and the word thus varied in form is said to be INFLECTED.

We have noticed now all the varieties of meaning and use for which the verb in our language is thus changed in form, or inflected. The inflection of a verb is usually called its CONJUGATION (the name means only a 'joining together' of the various verb-forms); and the verb is said to be CONJUGATED.

67. We sum this up by saying:

***Inflection* is the change of form of a word, depending on differences of its meaning and use.**

The verb is inflected to show differences of *person*, of *number*, of *tense*, and of *mode*; and this inflection is called its *conjugation*.

68. Of nouns and pronouns we have already noticed that kind of inflection which expresses difference of number (as **man, men; horse, horses; I, we**).

But this is not their only change. If John has or owns or possesses a book, we call it

John's book,

adding an **s** to the name to mark the person as being the possessor of the thing; and so we speak also of

a man's deeds, men's souls, children's pleasures,

and so on. This form of a noun, usually made by adding an **'s**, we are accustomed to call its POSSESSIVE CASE, because it most often shows possession; it corresponds to the so-called GENITIVE case of other languages, and is just as properly itself called "genitive."

69. The genitive or possessive case of a noun has very nearly

the same meaning which the noun has with the preposition **of** before it; thus,

men's souls, and **the souls of men;**
children's pleasures, and **the pleasures of children.**

That is to say, the same relation of one noun to another which is expressed by connecting it with that other by the preposition **of** (in one of its senses), may also often be expressed by putting the noun itself in the genitive case. And sundry other relations, which we now express only by means of other prepositions, were formerly expressed in our language, and are still expressed in other languages, by other cases, or changed forms of the noun, no longer in use with us (see **399**).

70. The pronouns also have the possessive case, like nouns: thus,

he, his; it, its; who, whose;

and the case sometimes has a very different form from that which is usual with nouns: as

I, my or **mine; she, her; they, their.**

But most pronouns have another, a third, case-form; and this we have next to examine.

71. Both nouns and pronouns are capable of standing in another relation to a verb than that of its subject. If we say

the man reads books; John drives a horse;

books and **horse** are nouns, though neither of them is subject in its sentence. **Books,** for example, belongs to the predicate of the first sentence, because it is a part of what is asserted about **man,** the subject; the assertion is not that he reads simply, but that he reads books. The asserted general action of reading is limited, is made more definite, by pointing out on what particular class of things it is exercised.

A word added to a verb in this way is called the OBJECT

of the verb, because it signifies the person or thing that directly endures, or is the *object* of, the action expressed by the verb. As we shall see later (**223, 358,** etc.), a part of our verbs do, and others do not, admit such an addition. Further examples are

they learn their lessons; I see an elephant;
he told a story.

72. Now most of the pronouns have a different form when used as object of a verb from that which they have as subject.

Thus, in

I see him and he sees me,
we love them and they love us,

the pairs of words

I	and	**me,**	**he**	and	**him,**
we	and	**us,**	**they**	and	**them,**

are the corresponding subject and object forms of the same pronouns; and other examples are

thou and **thee,** **she** and **her,** **who** and **whom.**

This also we call a variation of *case;* and we call the form that is used as object the OBJECTIVE case (or often the ACCUSATIVE, that being the old Latin name for the same thing). And then the form used as subject we call, to distinguish it from the possessive and objective, the SUBJECTIVE case — or, more usually, the NOMINATIVE (the old Latin name; it means simply 'naming').

73. When a pronoun is connected with some other word by a preposition (**46**), we always use the objective case of it, just as when it is the object of a verb: for example,

I know him and hear from him;
we love them and write to them;
he that is not with us is against us.

And because the preposition seems to exert a kind of action upon the word which it thus attaches to something else, we call that word the OBJECT of the preposition.

74. There is no noun in our language which really has an objective case, a form different from the nominative, and used when the noun is object either of a verb or of a preposition. Thus, we say

the father loves the son and the son loves the father,
the father went with the son and the son went with the father,

without any change of the words **father** and **son**; and so in all other like cases.

Still, partly by analogy with the pronouns, and partly because many other languages related with English, and even the English itself in earlier times, do distinguish the object from the subject in nouns as well as in pronouns, we usually speak of nouns as having an objective case, only one that is always the same with the nominative.

And we speak of both verbs and prepositions as GOVERNING in the objective the word that is their object, because it is *compelled* to be put in that case after them, and because its relation to them, rather than any difference of meaning which we feel in the word itself, is the reason of its being made objective.

75. These are all the changes which make up the inflection of the noun and pronoun. As they are of another kind than those of the verb, they go by a different name; they are called the DECLENSION of the noun or pronoun, which is said to be DECLINED.

We sum up by saying:

The noun and pronoun are inflected to show differences of *case* and of *number*, and this inflection is called their *declension*.

76. The adjective has no such inflection as the noun. In general, whatever the number and whatever the case of the noun it qualifies, it remains unchanged. Thus, we say

good man and **good men,**

and both of them either as subject or as object; and we say also

a good man's reward and **good men's deeds,**

where the qualified nouns are in the possessive.

But we have two words used as adjectives (they are also pronouns: see **166**), namely **this** and **that,** which change their form according as the noun they qualify is singular or plural: thus,

this man, but **these men; that horse,** but **those horses.**

In many other languages, and even in the older English, something like this is the general rule; an adjective changes its form, not only according to the number, but also according to the case, of the noun which it qualifies; thus making the noun GOVERN the adjective, or requiring the adjective to AGREE with the noun, in number and case, just as the verb (**62**) agrees with its subject in number and person.

77. But many adjectives have a variation of form to express a greater degree and a greatest degree of the quality which the adjective expresses. Thus,

a tall man,	**a taller man,**	**the tallest man;**
a bright day,	**a brighter day,**	**the brightest day.**

These three forms are called the DEGREES OF COMPARISON of the adjective, which is said to be COMPARED. Such forms as **greater, brighter** are said to be of the COMPARATIVE degree, and such as **greatest, brightest,** of the SUPERLATIVE degree; and then, in distinction from these, the simple unaltered adjective, like **great, bright,** is said to be of the POSITIVE degree.

78. Strictly, this change of the adjective is rather a matter of derivation (see the next chapter) than of inflection. But it is usually, because more conveniently, called inflection, and treated of along with the declension of the noun and pronoun and the conjugation of the verb.

Hence we sum up by saying:

The adjective is sometimes inflected to show differences of *degree*; the inflection of an adjective is called its *comparison*.

79. Of the remaining parts of speech, the preposition and the conjunction have no variation of form at all, of the kind here called inflection: they are called UNINFLECTED, or INVARIABLE; or they are known as INDECLINABLES.

And so it is for the most part with the adverbs; only a few adverbs, either adjectives used also as adverbs or words resembling those, have a comparison like that of the adjective: thus,

much, more, most; ill, worse, worst;
soon, sooner, soonest.

80. We add, then, finally:

Adverbs, prepositions, and conjunctions are not inflected — except that a few adverbs have a *comparison* like that of adjectives.

81. We have thus noticed in a general way all the kinds of inflection of which English words are capable. By and by we shall have to take up each part of speech by itself, and explain its inflectional changes more fully. But before leaving the general subject, we will observe the methods of the change thus made in the words inflected.

82. In the first place, the inflectional change is generally made by adding something on at the end of a word.

Thus, from **horse** come **horse's** and **horses**, by an added **s**; so from **book** come **book's** and **books**; and so on.

From **love** come **lovest** and **loves** and **loved**, by similar additions.

From **tall** come **taller** and **tallest**, from **soon** come **sooner** and **soonest**, in the same way.

Much the largest part of the inflection of English words is of this kind. And those who have studied the history of the language, and seen how it came to be

what it is, find that the other kinds are in origin only the consequences and alterations of this.

83. In the second place, some words are inflected without any additions made to them, but by changes made *in* them, alterations of the sounds of which they are composed.

Thus, from **man** comes the plural **men**; from **run** comes the past or preterit **ran**, from **lead** comes **led**, and from **send** comes **sent**; from **much** come the comparative and superlative **more** and **most**; and so on.

84. In the third place, in inflecting some words we both add something and alter the sound of the original word.

Thus, from **kneel** we either form the preterit by an addition, **kneeled**, or by a different addition and a change of sound, **knelt**; so either **brothers** or **brethren** from **brother**; so **children** from **child**; so **does** and **says** from **do** and **say**; and many more.

85. In the fourth place, where most words have some kind of change in themselves for inflection, a few substitute what seem to be, or really are, wholly different words.

Thus, we have the possessive **her** and plural **they** from **she**; and in like manner **my** and **we** and **us** from **I**; we have the preterits **was** from **am**, and **went** (which is really the preterit of **wend**, like **sent** from **send**) from **go**.

Of course, this is not real inflection at all, but another kind of change, which takes the place of it.

86. Finally, where some words are inflected, others, of the same class, remain unchanged.

Thus, unlike **man** and **horse**, **sheep** is the same in the plural as in the singular; **he** and **she** form special objective cases, but **it** is the same in nominative and objective; unlike **love** and **run**, **set** and **put** have the same form in the preterit tense as in the present; and so on. Such inconsistencies and irregularities are found more or less in every language.

87. In describing the inflection of any word, we take for a starting-point that form which is usually the simplest and

briefest, and we treat the others as made from that by various alterations. This simplest form is called the BASE OF INFLECTION (other names for it are ***theme, stem, crude-form***). In nouns and pronouns it is the same with the nominative singular; in adjectives and adverbs, the positive; in verbs, the infinitive (**237**). But the base of inflection of verbs is also called the ROOT.

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER III.

FOR PRACTICE IN INFLECTION.

The exercises given with the second chapter may be again taken up, and the sentences varied by changing the number of the nouns, the number and person of the pronouns, the tense of the verbs, and the degree of the adjectives. Changes in the verbs resulting from changes in the number and person of its subject should be carefully noted. Also, those words which admit of no inflectional change of form should be observed and pointed out.

Additional examples for practice — bringing in, especially, possessive and objective cases — are as follows:

VII. Miscellaneous Examples.

A wise son maketh a glad father.
A soft answer turneth away wrath.
In the beginning God created the heaven and the earth.
On her white breast a sparkling cross she wore.
Order is heaven's first law.
Honest plain words best pierce the ear of grief.
Fame's flight is glory's fall.
Time writes no wrinkles on thy azure brow.
A man's manners often influence his fortune.
We tell thy doom without a sigh.

Every turf beneath their feet
Shall be a soldier's sepulchre.

For his gayer hours she has a voice of gladness.
I bring fresh showers for the thirsting flowers.
The curfew tolls the knell of parting day.

Full many a gem, of purest ray serene,
The dark unfathomed caves of ocean bear.

Honor is virtue's reward.

Charity covereth a multitude of sins.

Richer by far is the heart's adoration.

Coming events cast their shadows before.

Long looked the anxious squires; their eye
Could in the darkness naught descry.
At length the freshening western blast
Aside the shroud of battle cast;
And first the ridge of mingled spears
Above the brightening cloud appears,
And in the smoke the pennons flew.

Stillest streams oft water fairest meadows.

Love denies rest to my soul and slumber to my eyes.

CHAPTER IV.

DERIVATION AND COMPOSITION.

88. We saw in the last chapter that English words are altered in various ways, in order to express differences of meaning, or on account of connection with other words; and we called these changes *inflectional.*

It might have been said properly enough that these altered forms are *derived* from what we called the *base of inflection* by certain additions or other changes. Thus, **horses** is derived from **horse** by adding an **s**-sound; **men** from **man**, by giving a different sound to the vowel in the middle of it; **sent** from **send**, by altering its last sound; and so on.

But there is another set of changes, never called inflectional, to which the name *derivation* is more usually and properly given: namely, the changes by which one base of inflection is made from another; and these are what we have next to look at.

89. The word **true** is an adjective, because (**39**) it is used to qualify a noun: we say

true stories, a true friend,

and so on; and we compare it (**78**), saying

truer stories than those he told before;
the truest friend that ever lived:

this is, as we saw before, the only inflectional change which an adjective can undergo.

But we may also add the sound **th** to the same adjective, making **truth.** In this new word the idea of **true** is still plain; but the change which we have made has produced a new part of speech, a noun: we can put an adjective before it, as

real truth;

we can put a verb after it, as

truth honors its speaker;

we can put a preposition before it, as

he spoke with truth.

90. In such a case as this, the noun is said to be DERIVED from the adjective; the process of making it is called DERIVATION, and it is itself called a DERIVATIVE, or a derivative noun; and the word from which it is made is called its PRIMITIVE (which means here 'predecessor, more original'). And the addition **th** that makes the derivative is called a noun-making SUFFIX (*suffix* means 'fixed or fastened on at the end').

There are many nouns made from adjectives in our language by the same suffix, often along with some change of sound in the adjective itself: thus,

warmth from **warm**, **wealth** from **well**,
length from **long**, **width** from **wide**,
breadth from **broad**, **health** from **hale**,
filth from **foul**.

91. This derived noun **truth** we can then turn again into an adjective, by adding to it the adjective-making suffix **ful**: thus, **truthful**; the word means nearly, though not precisely, the same as **true.** It is plain enough here that what we call the suffix **ful** is really nothing but the common adjective **full**, and that **truthful** is nearly the same as **full of truth.**

The adjectives that are derived from nouns by adding **ful** to them are a very large number: thus,

faithful, sorrowful, disdainful, tearful, careful, wilful.

92. But this derived adjective **truthful** we can turn once more into a noun by adding another noun-making suffix, namely **ness**: thus, **truthfulness.** We might define **truthfulness** to mean 'the quality of being *truthful*,' just as **truth** sometimes means 'the quality of being *true*.'

The English nouns which are derived from adjectives by

adding **ness** are still more numerous than the adjectives which are derived from nouns by adding **ful**. Examples are

calmness, fatness, godliness, heaviness, foolishness, faithfulness, faithlessness, suitableness, disinterestedness.

93. In the same way, taking **foul** as our starting-point, we may form **filth**, 'the quality of being foul,' or 'what is foul'; then, by another suffix than **ful** for making adjectives from nouns, **filthy**, 'marked with filth' (like **mighty, funny, watery**, and so on); and, again, **filthiness**, 'the quality of being filthy.'

Or, we might have added **ness** directly to the primitive adjective **foul**, forming **foulness**, 'the quality of being foul': although we do not say **trueness**, any more than we say **truthy** like **filthy**, or **filthful** like **truthful**.

No real reason can be given for such differences; it is simply the case that the one is customary, or what we are used to, and not the other.

94. Again, both our adjectives **true** and **foul** we can turn into adverbs (**42**), by adding the adverb-making suffix **ly**: thus,

truly, foully.

And we can treat in the same way the derived adjectives **truthful** and **filthy**: thus,

truthfully, filthily.

In fact, there are not many adjectives in the language from which we cannot derive adverbs by this adverb-making suffix, and a large part of our adverbs are made by it.

But the same suffix **ly** also makes quite a number of adjectives from nouns: examples are

manly, brotherly, homely.

95. Verbs also are derived from nouns and adjectives by verb-making suffixes: thus, **freshen** from the adjective **fresh**, **lengthen** from the noun **length**; other examples are

whiten, blacken, sweeten, sharpen, heighten, frighten.

And, on the other hand, derivatives are made by suffixes from verbs. Thus, from **suck** come the nouns **sucker** and **suckling**,

both meaning 'one who sucks'; from **hinder** comes **hindrance**, 'anything that hinders'; and so on. And verbs in general form adjectives in **ing** and **ed** or **en**; we shall see hereafter (**238**) that they have the special name of "participles": thus,

a sucking pig, a hindered result, a beaten dog.

96. In all our examples thus far, the word derived by adding a suffix has been a different part of speech from the primitive, the simpler word to which the suffix was added; and that is in general the way in our language.

But it is not always so. Thus, we have nouns derived from nouns: as **duckling**, 'a little **duck**'; **brooklet**, 'a small **brook**'; **countess**, 'the wife of a **count**'; **kingdom**, 'the realm of a **king**'; **knighthood**, 'the rank of **knight**'; and so on. Again, we have adjectives derived from adjectives: as **greenish** from **green** — and **greener** and **greenest**, as we saw above (**78**), are really of the same kind. And there are a few cases of verbs derived from verbs (by a change in pronunciation, not an added suffix): as **fell**, 'cause to **fall**'; **set**, 'cause to **sit**'; **lay**, 'cause to **lie**'; and so on (**225 c**).

97. There are also nouns, as well as verbs, derived from verbs by changes of pronunciation, without any suffix: thus, **bond** and **band** from **bind**, **song** from **sing**, **speech** from **speak**, **proof** from **prove**, and so on.

Those who study the history of our language are able to show that in most or all such cases there was formerly a suffix upon the derived word, but it is now lost.

98. For the same reason, because of the loss of suffixes that once existed, there are not a few instances where words of which one is a derivative from the other, or else both alike are derivatives from a third which is no longer part of the language, are precisely alike. Thus, we have **love** the verb, and **love** the noun; we have **fight** both as verb and as noun; and many other like cases.

99. But we also very frequently take a word which is properly one part of speech and convert it into another, or use it with the value of another, without adding a suffix, or making any

other such change of form as regularly belongs to a derivative. Thus, many adjectives are used as nouns: for example,

the good and the wicked,

meaning good and wicked persons; or

the good, the beautiful, and the true,

meaning that which is good, etc. Some adjectives do not add **ly** (**94**) to form adverbs, but are themselves used directly as adverbs: for example,

much, little, fast, long, ill;

others sometimes add **ly** and sometimes are used as adverbs without it: for example,

full, wide, late, deep, mighty.

Nouns are sometimes used as adjectives: we do not say **a golden watch** but **a gold watch.** And both nouns and adjectives are turned into verbs: thus,

I head a rebellion;	**I foot a bill;**
I hand a paper;	**I finger a pie;**
I toe a mark;	**I eye a scene;**
I stomach an affront;	**I breast the waves;**
I black boots;	**the fruit matures;**
they bettered their condition;	**the work wearied him.**

This also is a kind of derivation.

100. We also have derivative words made by putting something before the primitive, instead of after it. Thus, a host of words, of various kinds, may have **un** put before them, making a derivative which is the same part of speech, but of opposite meaning. For example, **untrue** and **untruthful** are adjectives, the opposite of **true** and **truthful**; and **untruly** and **untruthfully** are adverbs, the opposites of **truly** and **truthfully.** We can say also **untruth,** though there are far fewer nouns to which we add **un** in this way; other examples are **unbelief, unrest.** And verbs derived with **un,** like **undo** and **undress,** are still less common.

101. An addition thus made at the beginning of a word is called a PREFIX instead of a suffix (*prefix* means '*fixed* or fastened

on in front'). Prefixes are in English much less common than suffixes; and they do not ordinarily change the part of speech of the word to which they are added. Other examples are

befall, gainsay, recall, dishonest, mischance.

102. We saw above that the suffix **ful**, of **truthful** and other words like it, was really the adjective **full** added to the noun **truth**, in such a way that the two form but a single word. It would be proper, then, to say that **truthful** is a word made up of the two other independent words **truth** and **full**. Further examples are

rainbow, grass-plot, gentleman, washtub,
high-born, homesick, browbeat, fulfil.

Such a word is called a COMPOUND; the two parts are said to be COMPOUNDED, and the putting them together is called COMPOSITION (which means simply 'putting together').

103. There are great numbers of compound words in English, and we are all the time making new ones.

Sometimes the compounded words stand in the compound just as they would in a sentence, and seem simply to have grown together into one: such are

blackberry, broadaxe, gentleman, highland, grandfather.

But much more often they have such a relation to one another that if we used them separately we should have to change their order, or put in other words to connect them, or both: thus, **housetop** is the 'top *of a* house,' **headache** is an 'ache *in the* head,' **heartrending** is 'rending *the* heart,' **blood-red** is 'red *like* blood,' **knee-deep** is 'deep *up to the* knee,' **washtub** is a 'tub *to* wash *in*,' **drawbridge** is a 'bridge *made to* draw *up*,' **steamboat** is a 'boat *that goes by* steam,' and so on.

Then there are cases in which the relation of the two words is still more peculiar: thus, a **pickpocket** is a '*person who* picks pockets,' a **telltale** is '*one who* tells tales'; and we call one a **red-coat** because he '*wears a* red coat.'

104. A compound is thus generally a shortened or abbreviated description of something. The compounded word, though really made up of two, comes to

seem only one to us, and especially because we pronounce one of its parts more strongly and distinctly than the other — or, as it is called, lay an ACCENT on one member of the compound. Compare, for example, **highland** with **high land**, **gentleman** with **gentle man**.

105. A compounded word often changes its pronunciation still further, so that, without studying its history, we do not think of what it comes from. So with **holiday**, which is **holy day**; **furlong**, which is **furrow-long**; **fortnight**, which is **fourteen night**; so with **forehead** and **breakfast**, and many others.

106. Indeed, we can only make a beginning of understanding the derivation and composition of English words, unless we study their history, in the older languages from which our English has come, and the other languages with which it is related (**3**).

107. Thus far we have been looking at the words we use in order to be able to tell to what class each one belongs, or what "part of speech" it is; to see what are the principal uses of each part of speech in the sentence; how some parts of speech are inflected; and how some words are derived from others, or put together to form others. Now we need to take up each part of speech by itself, and examine it more fully with regard to some of these matters.

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER IV.

FOR ANALYZING DERIVATIVE AND COMPOUND WORDS.

It must be left to the judgment of the teacher, how far the pupils shall be expected or required to take apart and explain the derivative and compound words which occur in the exercises. If he chooses, this whole fourth chapter may be omitted at first, and also the paragraphs on simple, derivative, and compound words in the following chapters on the parts of speech; and the whole subject may be left until the Grammar is studied through a second time. But it is believed that nothing is brought forward here which is not so simple and elementary that even young scholars may take it up with advantage; and that exercise from the beginning in such simple analysis as the chapter illustrates will be a useful introduction to that study of the history of English words which is to be aimed at, but which only more advanced works can properly deal with.

The enlightened teacher should supplement from his own knowledge the inquiries started here, adapting his further instruction to the capacities of his

classes: especially, if they have studied Latin, by leading their attention to the Latin origin, and the derivation by Latin methods, of many of the words met with.

VIII. Miscellaneous examples.

The sky is darkened with thunder-clouds. The snow-drifts lie breast-high in the fence-corners. The industrious laborer wins wealth and happiness. This proud countess was only a beggar-girl in her childhood; she is the heroine of a wonderful and almost incredible story. The prisoner escaped from the keeping of his kind-hearted jailer; but the runaway was speedily recaptured, after a brief but wearisome chase. The rosy-faced school-boy runs to the play-ground with joyous swiftness. Your lordship is welcome. My grandfather sat in his easy-chair, and gazed at the beautiful landscape. The pickpocket was caught by the policeman, and, for security, placed in close confinement. His penknife lies beside the inkstand on his study-table.

Great princes have great playthings.
Blind unbelief is sure to err.
Misery acquaints a man with strange bedfellows.
Thou art glorious in holiness, fearful in praises.
There's neither honesty, manhood, nor good fellowship in them.
He drags at each remove a lengthening chain.
'Tis Jove's world-wandering herald.
The snow shall be their winding-sheet.
Borrowing dulls the edge of husbandry.
So sinks the day-star in the ocean-bed.

The breezy call of incense-breathing morn,
The swallow twittering from the straw-built shed,
No more shall rouse them from their lowly bed.

Out of the cloud-folds of her garments shaken,
Over the woodlands, brown and bare,
Over the harvest-fields forsaken,
Descends the snow.

Athens arose — a city such as vision
Builds from the purple crags and silver towers
Of battlemented cloud, as in derision
Of kingliest masonry; the ocean-floors
Pave it; the evening-sky pavilions it;
Its portals are inhabited
By thunder-zoned winds, each head
Within its cloudy wings with sun-fire garlanded.

CHAPTER V.

NOUNS.

108. A NOUN is, as we have seen (**32**), the name of anything.

We have noticed the principal uses of the noun in the sentence. Most important of all, it is the subject of the sentence: thus,

the sun shines; horses run.

It is also the object of a verb (**71**): thus,

I see the sun; he drives the horses.

It is governed by a preposition (**44**): thus,

I look at the sun with my eyes, through a glass.

It is qualified by an adjective: thus,

I look at the bright sun, not with my naked eyes, but through a dark glass.

There are other uses of the noun, which will be explained later; but these are the ones by which we can best try a word, to see whether it is or is not to be called a noun.

CLASSES OF NOUNS.

109. A noun is sometimes the name of a separate or individual object: thus,

a **man,**	a **horse,**	a **tree,**	a **house,**
a **spoon,**	a **cup,**	a **gun,**	a **brick.**

But a noun is also the name of a part of such an object: thus,

hand,	**cheek,**	**knee,**	**foot,**	**toe,**	**nail;**
side,	**front,**	**back,**	**top,**	**bottom,**	**surface.**

Or a noun is the name of the material of which such an object is composed: thus,

flesh, wood, silver, porcelain, iron, clay.

110. Again, a noun is not only the name of an object that can be seen and touched, like those mentioned above, but of one that is perceived by other senses: thus,

noise, thunder, odor, flavor.

Also, of things which we conceive of as existing, though our senses do not show them to us directly: thus,

mind, soul, God.

111. Nouns are names also of a vast number of qualities and conditions and relations of objects: for example,

place,	**color,**	**height,**	**weight,**	**number,**
rectitude,	**frailty,**	**truth,**	**ugliness,**	**beauty,**
nearness,	**distance,**	**presence,**	**absence,**	**existence.**

These are called ABSTRACT nouns, because we *abstract* (that is, 'draw off, separate') the qualities, and so forth, from the objects to which they belong, and think of them by themselves, as if they had a separate existence.

112. Anything, in short, which we can put before our minds in such a way as to say something about it, or to make it by itself the subject of an assertion, we have to call by a name, and that name is a noun.

Thus, if we see one boy strike another with a stick, we not only name the three separate things concerned, saying

John struck James with a stick;

but also the parts: thus,

the hand that held the stick;
the cheek which the stick struck.

And we name the act itself, speaking of

the stroke or **blow which was struck by John.**

Noticing that the blow was a quick and an angry one, and that it hurt, we can speak of these qualities and effects themselves: saying, for example,

the quickness of the blow allowed no dodging;
John's anger was evident;
the pain of the blow was severe;
the mark of the blow remained a long time.

And we moralize about it thus:

striking one's companion deserves punishment;
such an occurrence is painful enough;
the sight was disagreeable to me;

and so on.

It is needless to attempt to classify the whole infinite variety of nouns, but a few classes of especial importance have to be noticed.

113. A noun is generally the name of each member of a whole class of similar things; it belongs to a number of different individuals, and to one of them just as much as to another: for example,

man, dog, city, country, day, month, star.

But in some classes the different individuals are of importance enough to have names as individuals, distinguishing them from others of the same class.

Thus, each country, each city or town of a country, each street of a city, has its own name, by which it may be known from other countries, towns, or streets: for example,

England, Germany, America, China;
London, Paris, Berlin, New York, Peking;
Ludgate, Cornhill, the **Boulevards, Broadway.**

So each day of the week and month of the year: as,

Wednesday, Saturday; March, December.

So each planet or star: as,

Venus, Jupiter, Antares, the **Pleiades.**

So, to its acquaintances, each dog: as,

Tray, Spot, Nix, Rover, Cæsar.

So, especially, each man : thus,

Moses, Paul, Socrates, Julius Cæsar,
Martin Luther, Pius IX., Mohammed,
William Pitt, George Washington.

Such a name is called a "proper" noun or name (that is, in the Latin meaning of the word *proper*, 'belonging to something in particular, *appropriated* to individual use').

A PROPER noun or name, then, is a name given to an individual of a class, to distinguish it from other individuals of the same class.

And, in contrast to these, all the rest are called COMMON nouns — that is, names owned *in common* by a number of things of the same kind, their class-name.

114. On the other hand, some nouns signify, not any single thing, but a certain number or *collection* of single things : thus,

pair, dozen, group, troop, team,
gang, family, tribe, nation.

Such nouns are called COLLECTIVES.

115. Some nouns mark the thing signified by them as male or female : thus,

man, woman;	**son, daughter;**
uncle, aunt;	**king, queen;**
bull, cow;	**ram, ewe;**
count, countess;	**hero, heroine.**

Such nouns are called GENDER-nouns (from a Latin word meaning 'kind, sex').

And those gender-nouns that signify male beings are called MASCULINE nouns, or nouns of the masculine gender; while those that signify female beings are called FEMININE nouns, or nouns of the feminine gender.

All other nouns — those which are not gender-nouns, or have nothing to do with defining sex — are often called NEUTER nouns, or nouns of the neuter gender (that is, 'of

neither one sex nor the other'). They either belong to objects that have no sex, like

sun, day, house, tree, stone, hair, color;

or they are given indifferently to beings of both sexes: as,

child, horse, hound, fish, crab, mosquito.

There is no need to say anything about gender in connection with a noun, unless it be a noun that actually implies a distinction of sex.

116. Some nouns mark the thing they signify as of small size; or, if a creature, as young, not full-grown. Examples are

gosling, lambkin, brooklet, hillock, bootee.

These are called DIMINUTIVES (words showing something *diminished*, or made small).

Words like **boy, babe, colt, lamb, pup,** have a meaning like that of diminutives; but it is usual to give this name only to words derived from others by suffixes which add the diminutive meaning.

These are the most important classifications of nouns according to their meaning. Now we have to notice their principal classifications according to their form.

117. Nouns are divided according to their form into simple, derivative, and compound.

SIMPLE nouns are such as we cannot take apart into simpler elements: as,

sun, man, boy, hope, chair, family.

DERIVATIVE nouns are such as come by added suffixes or prefixes from other simpler words used in our language: as,

manliness from **man** (through **manly**);
boyhood from **boy**; **goodness** from **good**;
truth from **true**; **countess** from **count.**

COMPOUND nouns are such as are made up of two or more words used independently in our language: as,

house-top, inkstand, steamboat, blackberry, pickpocket.

It has been already pointed out (106) that a great many words which are thus defined as simple are found to be really derivative or compound when we come to know more about them. To recognize the plain and evident derivation and composition of English words is the proper preparation for studying the history of the obscurer ones.

118. The most frequent and important classes of derivative nouns are as follows:

a. ***Abstract*** nouns, from adjectives: as,

goodness, likeness; frailty, security; truth, breadth.

Or from nouns: as,

Godhead; boyhood, knighthood; kingdom; despotism.

b. ***Feminine gender***-nouns, from masculines: as,

countess (from **count**), **abbess** (from **abbot**), **heroine** (from **hero**).

c. ***Diminutives,*** from other nouns: as,

gosling (from **goose**); **brooklet, ringlet; lambkin.**

d. Nouns denoting an ***actor,*** from verbs: as,

lover, runner, defender, beggar, sailor, grantor.

e. Nouns denoting one who ***deals with*** or practises anything, from other nouns: as,

jailer, prisoner; lawyer, glazier; annalist, organist.

f. Nouns denoting an ***action*** or ***condition,*** from verbs: as,

feeling, meaning.

g. Nouns formed from other nouns by ***prefixes:*** as,

unbelief, unconcern, inexperience, nonsense; disease, disgrace; ex-mayor, ante-room, sub-officer.

119. The principal classes of compound nouns are as follows:

a. A noun with a preceding adjective that qualifies or describes it: as,

ill-will, midday, blindworm, blackberry, goodman, Englishman.

b. A noun with a preceding noun that describes it, or is in apposition (375) with it: as,

merchant-tailor, sailor-boy, man-servant.

c. A noun with a preceding noun that limits it in any other way: as,

sunrise, seashore, innkeeper, churchyard, rainbow, nest-egg, shellfish, steamboat, railway.

This class is by far the largest, and the relation of the limiting noun to the other is a very various one (see **103**).

d. A noun with a preceding verb-root taken in the sense of a verbal noun: as,

washtub, treadmill, drawbridge, bakehouse:

that is, 'tub for washing,' and so on.

e. A *descriptive* compound, made either of a noun and preceding adjective (class **a**) with the idea of possession added: as,

red-coat, blue-stocking, graybeard:

that is, 'one who has or wears a red coat,' and so on; or of a verb with its object or an adverbial expression following it: as,

pickpocket, turnkey, lie-abed, runaway, touch-me-not:

that is, 'one who picks pockets,' and so on.

f. A noun with a prefix: as,

inland, afterthought, overthrow, underbrush, forelock, outpost.

It is not easy to draw the line sharply between those words formed with prefixes which are to be regarded as compounds and those which are to be regarded as derivatives (**118 g**).

INFLECTION OF NOUNS.

120. Nouns are inflected, or varied in form, to express differences of NUMBER and of CASE.

The inflection of a noun is called its DECLENSION. (See above, **58, 68, 74, 75.**)

NUMBER.

121. The numbers are two: the SINGULAR, used when only one thing of the kind denoted by the noun is meant; and the PLURAL, when more than one are meant. (See above, **58.**)

122. English nouns regularly form their plural by adding **s** or **es** to the singular: thus,

hats, hoes, kisses.

123. But, as the examples just given show, the added **s** sometimes is pronounced as an **s** (**hats**), and sometimes as a **z** (**hoes**); and sometimes it makes an additional syllable (**kisses**).

The rules for this are as follows:

a. If a noun ends with the sound (however spelt) of **p**, or **t**, or **k**, or **f**, or **th** pronounced as in **thin** and **truth**, the added **s** has the proper **s**-sound as in **sauce**, and does not make an additional syllable: thus,

caps, capes, mats, mates, tacks, cakes, chiefs, safes, seraphs, coughs, truths.

b. If a noun ends with the sound (however spelt) of any vowel, or of **m**, **n**, **ng**, **l**, or **r**, or of **b**, **d**, **g** as in **go** and **egg**, **v**, or **th** as in **the** and **lathe**, the added **s** makes no additional syllable, but has the sound of **z**: thus,

days, fees, eyes, hoes, pews, brows, boys, hymns, chimes, sins, signs, songs, wails, cars, cares, tubs, tubes, lads, spades, eggs, caves, lathes.

c. If a noun ends in a hissing or sibilant sound — namely, the sound of **s**, **z**, **sh**, and **zh**, however spelt (hence including the **x**, **ch**, and **j**-sounds) — the added sign of the plural makes another syllable, **es**, and is written **es** unless the noun ends already with a silent **e**; and the **s** (as always after a vowel sound) is pronounced as **z**. Thus,

kisses, horses, ices, boxes, buzzes, prizes, fishes, matches, judges.

124. Some nouns are more or less irregular in the way in which the addition of the plural sign is made. Thus:

a. A class of nouns ending in an **f**-sound (spelt **f** or **fe**) form their plural in **ves**: thus,

half, halves; leaf, leaves; wife, wives; shelf, shelves;

also

staff, staves.

But

puffs, cliffs, fifes, hoofs,

and some others.

b. Many nouns ending in the singular with **th** having the **thin**-sound, change it to the **then**-sound in the plural, and then, of course, give the added **s** the **z**-sound: thus,

path, paths; oath, oaths;

and so on.

c. **Die, pea,** and **penny** form the plurals

dice, pease, pence,

besides the regular

dies, peas, pennies;

the different forms being used in somewhat different senses.

d. Nouns ending in **y** after a consonant, and many of those ending in **o** after a consonant, add **es** instead of **s**, changing the **y** to **i**: thus,

pony, ponies; lady, ladies; colloquy, colloquies; cargo, cargoes; potato, potatoes;

but

boys, days, valleys, attorneys;

and also

bravos, zeros.

e. Letters and figures, and a word of any part of speech used as a noun in the sense of 'the word so and so' (**148**), usually put an apostrophe (') before the **s** that forms their plural: thus,

dot your i's and cross your t's;
in 999 are three 9's;
he uses too many I's and me's and my's.

125. A few English nouns form their plurals in other ways. Thus:

a. By a change of sound within, not adding any ending: thus,

man, men; woman, women;
foot, feet tooth, teeth; goose, geese;
louse, lice; mouse, mice;

these last two have also a change in the spelling, from **s** to **c.**

b. By adding **en,** with or without other changes: thus,

ox, oxen; brother, brethren (or **brothers**); **child, children.**

And **cow** in old style forms **kine.**

126. A considerable number of words taken unchanged from foreign languages form their plurals according to the rules of those languages.

Some of the commonest of these are

phenomenon, phenomena;	**stratum, strata;**
genus, genera;	**formula, formulæ;**
genius, genii;	**analysis, analyses;**
index, indices;	**beau, beaux;**

cherub, cherubim.

But many of these words, being of frequent use, make regular English plurals as well as foreign ones: thus,

formulas, cherubs, indexes, geniuses.

Sometimes (as in the last two cases) the two kinds of plural are used in different senses.

127. Some words use, either generally or in certain senses, their singular form also with a plural meaning, instead of forming a proper plural.

Thus:

a. Certain names of animals, as

sheep, deer, swine, fish (also **fishes**),

and sundry kinds of fish, as

trout, salmon, shad, pike.

b. Certain words, mostly collectives (**114**), used with numerals in counting objects or telling their number: thus,

couple, brace, pair, yoke, dozen, score, gross, ton, head, sail.

c. A few other words: as

cannon, shot, heathen, folk, people.

There are few of these words which do not sometimes, in some uses, form a plural like other nouns.

128. Some words are rarely or never used except in the singular. These are especially proper names (**113**); nouns of material (**109**): as,

gold, lead, clay, mortar, flesh;

and abstract nouns (**111**): as,

peace, caloric, thankfulness.

But even proper names are capable of forming plurals signifying either the more than one individual bearing the same name: as,

the Smiths and the Browns; all the Wednesdays of the month;

or individuals resembling the one to whom the name belongs: as,

the Miltons and Shakespeares of our century.

Most nouns of material are also used as names of articles made of that material, or kinds of it, or masses of it, and so on, and as such have plurals: as,

a ship's coppers; the leads of a roof; the clays and gravels of the West.

And a great many abstract nouns form plurals as signifying the quality in separate acts or exhibitions: thus,

a good man's charities; the heats of summer;
the loves of the angels; the beauties of its form.

129. Some words, on the other hand, are used only in the plural. Examples are

bellows, tongs, shears, trousers, measles, victuals, vitals, entrails, annals, nuptials, obsequies, thanks.

News and **means**, properly plural, have now come to be used generally as singular. So also names of branches of study ending in **ics**, as **ethics, mathematics, politics.**

Riches, originally a singular, has now come to be used only as a plural.

130. Compound nouns add the sign of the plural to the noun, or to the principal noun, the one described or limited by the other: thus,

blackbirds, merchantmen, house-tops, steamboats, hangers-on, brothers-in-law, drawbridges, afterthoughts.

A descriptive compound (**119 e**) adds **s** to the last word, whether noun or not: as,

redcoats, turnkeys, runaways, forget-me-nots.

Some words, originally compounds, are no longer felt as such, and so are treated as simple words: thus,

mouthfuls, handfuls.

CASE.

131. English nouns have only two case-forms: one of them, the POSSESSIVE or GENITIVE, shows possession or appurtenance; the other is used in all other relations.

132. Since, however, some pronouns have one case-form — **I, he, they, who,** etc. — for use when the word is subject, and another — **me, him, them, whom,** etc. — for use when the word is object of a verb or preposition, it is customary to distinguish these two different uses of the noun also, and to speak of the SUBJECTIVE or NOMINATIVE case, and of the OBJECTIVE or ACCUSATIVE case of the noun; although in fact the two are always the same in form (compare **74**).

133. The possessive case in the singular number is made by adding an **s** (before which an apostrophe is written: thus, **'s**) to the noun.

This sign of the possessive follows the same rules as the **s** of the plural (**123**) with regard to being pronounced as **s** or as **z**, and to forming an additional syllable or not; but it is never written with **es**.

Thus, in **cat's** it is pronounced as **s**, in **dog's** as **z**; in **sex's** and **Charles's** and **church's** it makes a syllable and has the **z**-sound.

134. But a noun of more than one syllable ending in an **s** or **z**-sound sometimes (like a plural; see below) omits the possessive sign, in order to avoid the disagreeable repetition of hissing letters. In such a case, an apostrophe is written alone at the end of the word. Thus,

the princess' favorite; for conscience' sake.

135. Plurals not ending in **s** make their possessive case in the same way as singulars: thus,

men's, children's, mice's, sheep's.

Other plurals make no change in pronunciation for their possessive cases; but an apostrophe is written after the **s** — thus, **s'** — as sign to the eye of the possessive use: thus,

cats', dogs', ladies', horses', judges'.

136. For the possessive case in almost all its uses we can put the objective with **of**: thus,

the cat's head, or **the head of the cat;**
the king's enemies, or **the enemies of the king.**

And many nouns are rarely or never used in the possessive, the other mode of expression being employed instead.

137. In compound nouns, the sign of the possessive is added at the end of the whole compound, of whatever kind it may be: thus, **his father-in-law's house.**

138. The same rule is followed in the case of a combination of two names, of a name preceded by a title, of a noun preceded or followed by descriptive or limiting words, and so on: thus,

George Washington's hatchet; Queen Elizabeth's ruff; Mr. John Smith's horse; Thomas Robinson Esquire's residence; the King of England's crown; his dead master Edward's memory; at my cousin William Thompson's.

Even when nouns are connected by **and** or **or**, the possessive sign is sometimes added only to the last of them: thus,

God and Nature's hand;
a fortnight or three weeks' possession.

139. There are certain uses of the noun (or pronoun) which represent another case, one which was formerly distinguished in English by a difference of form from the nominative, possessive, and objective, and which is still so distinguished in many languages — the so-called DATIVE case. It expresses the relation usually signified by **to** or **for**, as the possessive expresses that signified by **of.**

Thus, instead of saying,

I sent a book to my friend,

we may say,

I sent my friend a book;

instead of

he made a coat for the man,

we may say

he made the man a coat.

Friend and **man**, in the latter phrases, have really just as good a right to be called "datives" as **friend** and **man** after **to** and **for** in the former phrases have to be called "objectives."

140. But as there are no words in English, even pronouns, which have for such dative uses a special form, different from the objective, we call a word so used a DATIVE-OBJECTIVE, or ob-

jective of the INDIRECT OBJECT; and distinguish the other, when necessary, as the ACCUSATIVE-OBJECTIVE, or objective of the DIRECT OBJECT. (See Syntax, 363 etc.)

141. Nouns have no distinction of *person* (61): that is to say, a noun used as subject takes the verb always in the same person, the third, even though used by the speaker about himself, or in addressing another: thus,

the subscriber gives notice; is your honor well?

But we often call to a person or thing, addressing it by its name: as,

O God! ye stars! see here, my friend;
what do you mean, you blockhead?

Some languages have for this use a special form, which is called the "vocative" case; we use the subjective or nominative case; and we may distinguish it, when thus used, as the NOMINATIVE OF ADDRESS, or the VOCATIVE-NOMINATIVE — or simply VOCATIVE.

A vocative is never a member of a sentence; it forms no part of either subject or predicate, but stands by itself, like an interjection. But it may have the same words, or phrases, or even clauses, added to it that the other cases have, by way of limitation or description. Thus, for example:

Your Grace of York, set forward!
O great Sciolto! O my more than father!
Our Father which art in heaven.

EXAMPLES OF DECLENSION.

142. Examples of the complete inflection, or declension, of an English noun, are, then, as follows:

	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nominative and Objective	cat	cats	dress	dresses	man	men
Genitive or Possessive	cat's	cats'	dress's	dresses'	man's	men's

OTHER PARTS OF SPEECH USED AS NOUNS.

143. Words that are not properly nouns, also combinations of words, even phrases and sentences (clauses), are

sometimes used in sentences with the value of nouns. They are then usually said to be used SUBSTANTIVELY, or as substantives (**35**).

144. Adjectives are especially often used substantively. Thus:

a. Some adjectives are used with the value of an abstract noun in the singular, meaning 'that which is so and so,' or the like: thus,

avoid the wrong and choose the right;
the good, the beautiful, and the true.

So also,

sit on my left; a breeze from the north;
we judge the future by the past;
he was in the thickest of the fight;

and so on.

b. Almost any adjective may be used as a plural noun, signifying the persons in general that have the character described by the adjective: thus,

give to the poor; the virtuous alone are happy;
how sleep the brave! the dead are more than the living;
sweets to the sweet.

c. Many adjectives are used as nouns, either in the singular or in the plural, to signify a person or thing such as would be described by the adjective.

So, especially, an adjective that means belonging to a certain country, or race, or sect, or party: thus,

an American, the Americans, a Greek, a Lutheran,
a Stoic, the Asiatics, Medes and Persians.

An adjective of country or race also signifies the language of that country or race: thus,

the English is our mother-tongue;
say it in French; he reads Chinese.

Other examples are :

a noble, the nobles, a brave ('Indian warrior'),
the ancients, blacks and whites, goods and chattels, his betters, an elder.

But most adjectives of nation ending in a sibilant sound (s or z or sh) are used as nouns signifying persons in the plural only, and form compounds with **man** in the singular : thus,

an Englishman, the English ; a Dutchman, the Dutch.

Unlike the first two classes, these often form plurals (excepting the little subclass last mentioned) like nouns ; and it may be a question whether we should not consider them as adjectives converted into derivative nouns, rather than as adjectives used substantively.

145. Adverbs are sometimes used after prepositions with the value of nouns : thus,

since then, from hence, from abroad.

(See **322.**)

146. The infinitive of a verb is really a verbal noun, and all its constructions are to be explained as such. (See Chapter XV.)

147. A sentence, containing a subject and predicate of its own, is often used with the value of a noun in another sentence : thus,

what he does is well done; they saw that he was ill.

(See **423.**)

148. A word of any kind may be used as a noun, when we mean by it 'the word so and so, with the meaning that belongs to it' : thus,

loved is a verb; truly is a derivative adverb;
he promised without an if or a but;
when I was young—ah! woful when!

Names of letters and figures and so on are like these.

Sometimes a phrase or clause composed of more than one word is used in the same way : thus,

the saddest of words are "It might have been";
a bitter and perplexed "What shall I do?"

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER V.

PARSING.

We are now ready to begin to *parse*, as it is called, a part of the words — namely, the nouns — in our illustrative sentences and exercises.

To parse a word is to give a complete account of it, as it stands in the sentence of which it forms a part.

This account (or description, or definition) includes three parts : —

A. What KIND of word it is. This implies telling :

1. What part of speech it is ;
2. To which of the various classes and sub-classes into which that part of speech is divided it belongs.

The distinctions of the parts of speech, with the reasons for them, are given in the second chapter ; the classes etc. are given under each part of speech.

B. What is its grammatical FORM. This implies telling :

1. Whether it is simple, or derivative, or compound ;
2. If it is an inflected word, what is its form as such : that is, of what number, case, person, tense, mode, or degree it is. And, in connection with this, the word should be more or less fully inflected, to show what its various inflectional forms are.

As was pointed out at the end of the fourth chapter (p. 44), the first of these heads — the question of derivative, compound, etc. — may be omitted or deferred at the teacher's discretion.

C. What is its CONSTRUCTION : that is, what part it plays in the sentence to which it belongs, in what way it is combined with other words to make up the sentence.

Construction means 'building together' ; the sentence is thought of as a *structure* or 'building,' as something *built up* by joining in a proper manner its various parts, the *parts of speech* that compose it.

The various constructions of any part of speech are the various ways in which it admits of being combined or put together with other parts of speech in making sentences. We have explained in the second and third chapters all the most usual constructions of the different parts of speech ; and the rest will be pointed out later, in the Syntax. The constructions of the noun noticed were these : *a.* subject of verb ;

b. object of verb ; *c.* object of preposition ; *d.* predicate noun ; *e.* possessive qualifying another noun. Any others than these are comparatively rare.

There are various styles of parsing : a fuller style, when every detail is given about the word parsed, with the reason for everything ; and a briefer, in which only the matters of most importance are mentioned, and the reasons omitted. The teacher must determine at any time which style shall be expected. He will naturally begin with the fuller, and pass gradually to the briefer when the other becomes a mere burdensome repetition of things well understood and familiar.

Example of parsing nouns.

My brother laid the paintings on John's writing-desk.

The first thing to be done here, as always, is to divide the sentence into subject and predicate — by a line drawn down between the two, if written ; and then to point out the bare subject and the bare predicate — by underscoring them, if written : thus,

My brother | laid the paintings on John's writing-desk.

Then, on either side the line, the word underscored is to be the first one taken up and parsed, since the rest are mere adjuncts or qualifiers to that one. And, in general, a word qualified by any other is to be parsed before that other. *This is a rule of highest importance.*

We begin, then, with **brother :**

Brother is a noun, because it is the name of something (namely, the name of a living being) ; a common noun, because it belongs alike to every individual of a class ; a gender-noun, because it implies a distinction of sex ; masculine, because it denotes only a male being (the corresponding feminine being **sister**) ; — it is a simple noun, because it cannot be taken apart into simpler English elements ; singular, because it means only one of its class ; it is inflected thus : **brother, brother's, brothers, brothers'** ; it is in the nominative case, because it is the subject of the sentence, the subject-nominative of the verb **laid.**

Of **my**, we only need to say here that it is an adjective qualifying **brother,** showing *whose* brother is meant.

Of **laid**, again, we say only that it is a verb, the bare predicate of the sentence, having for its subject the noun **brother.**

The noun **paintings**, again, we parse completely, but in a briefer form :

Paintings is a noun, a common noun, a derivative from the verb **paint** (as signifying something *painted*) ; it is of the plural number (because it denotes more than one of the things denoted by **painting**), and in the objective case, the object of the verb **laid**, being added to the verb to show *what* was laid.

The is an adjective word called an article (**52**), qualifying **paintings**.

Writing-desk is a common noun ; it is compound, being made up of **writing** and **desk** (meaning, 'a *desk* for *writing* on') ; it is in the objective case singular, object of the preposition **on**, being joined by the preposition to the verb **laid**, in order to show *where* the books were laid.

John's is a simple proper noun (because used to distinguish a certain individual from others of his class), masculine, in the genitive case singular ; and it qualifies **writing-desk**, being added to it to show *whose* writing-desk is meant.

Of **on**, finally, we need only say that it is a preposition, joining its object **writing-desk** to the verb **laid**.

EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE IN PARSING NOUNS.

For practice in parsing, classes may be made to turn back to the exercises already given under the preceding chapters ; or they may be directed to the various illustrative sentences in the text ; or to sentences made by the teacher or pupils and written out upon the board ; or to sentences selected by the teacher and written in the same way ; or to passages in the Readers or other text-books which the class is using — anything to make variety in the exercise, and rid it of a mechanical character.

A few additional examples are here given ; mostly such as illustrate special and exceptional points.

IX. Miscellaneous examples.

The chambers of sickness and distress are mostly peopled with the victims of intemperance and sloth.

I have bought five yoke of oxen.

These people, however fallen, are still men.

More than a hundred children's children rode on his knee.

Cool shades and dews are round my way.

In this place ran Cassius' dagger through.

Something more than fortune joined your loves.
His brother pirate's hand he wrung.
The vile alone are vain ; the great are proud.
Thy songs were made for the pure and free.
O night and darkness! ye are wondrous strong.
He strode haughtily into the thickest of the group.

From gold to gray, our wild sweet day
Of Indian summer fades too soon.

A hundred of the foe shall be
A banquet for the mountain birds.

So sweet a kiss the golden sun gives not
To those fresh morning drops upon the rose.

He giveth his beloved sleep.
Jove but laughs at lovers' perjury.
They bring down my gray hairs with sorrow to the grave.
Heaven from all creatures hides the book of Fate.

They shook the depths of the desert gloom
With their hymns of lofty cheer.

CHAPTER VI.

PRONOUNS.

149. A pronoun, as we have seen (**33**), is a kind of substitute for a noun.

A pronoun does not precisely name anything; but it points to or points out some person or thing that has been named before, or that is shown by a gesture, or that is defined by its relation to something else that is named.

Thus, if I say

this is my father; did you wish to see him?

I use **my** instead of my own name, and **you** instead of that of the person to whom I speak; having mentioned my father, I do not repeat the name, but use **him** instead; and **this** describes plainly enough the person whom I take hold of, or toward whom I make some gesture, or who is the only one near me.

150. The pronouns have then, in general, the same uses that nouns have in making sentences.

But pronouns differ from nouns in this respect — that they are almost never qualified by attributive adjectives: that is, by adjectives placed before them and directly qualifying them (**374**). Thus, for example, we say

a man,	but not	**a he;**
these men,	but not	**these we;**
good men,	but not	**good they;**

and so on.

Some of the words used as pronouns are used also as adjectives, qualifying a noun that is expressed, instead of standing for one that is omitted: thus, either

this is my father, or **this man is my father.**

This distinction between the substantive and the adjective value of the same word, or between its use as pronoun and as pronominal adjective, should always be clearly and accurately made.

151. Pronouns have also the same inflection as nouns: namely, for number and case. And some of them, as has been pointed out above, have for the objective case a special form, different from the nominative.

One class of pronouns, the ***personal***, make a distinction of PERSON (**61**); and one of these makes also, in the singular number, a distinction of GENDER (**115**).

152. The pronouns are divided into four classes:

1. ***personal*** pronouns;
2. ***demonstrative*** pronouns;
3. ***interrogative*** pronouns;
4. ***relative*** or ***conjunctive*** pronouns.

And there is besides another class, to which the name of pronoun less properly belongs, and which are called

5. ***indefinite*** pronouns.

There are so few pronouns of each class that we mention and describe them all — as is not the case with any other part of speech.

1. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

153. The PERSONAL pronouns are so called because they especially mark differences of ***person*** (**61**): that is, they distinguish the person speaking, or the FIRST PERSON, from the person spoken to, or the SECOND PERSON, and the person spoken of, or the THIRD PERSON.

154. The inflection of these pronouns is very irregular: thus, the plurals are quite different words from the singulars; and the possessives usually have double forms, and are not made like those of nouns; and both possessive and objective are sometimes quite different words from the nominative.

155. The pronouns of the first and second persons, with all their forms, are these:

	First Person.		Second Person.	
	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
Nom.	**I**	**we**	**thou**	**ye, you**
Poss.	**my, mine**	**our, ours**	**thy, thine**	**your, yours**
Obj.	**me**	**us**	**thee**	**you**

156. The plural forms of the first personal pronoun signify the speaker himself, together with the person or persons spoken to, or with others — any set or group or company of whom the speaker is one: thus,

we [human beings] **have speech, and they** [other animals] **have not;**

we [Americans] **live in the western hemisphere;**

we [I with my companions] **took a long walk together;**

we [you and I] **see each other.**

So the plural of the second person signifies either a number of persons addressed, or one or more such along with others who are regarded as belonging in one company with them: thus,

you [whom I speak to] **must listen to me;**

you [Germans] **are a nation of scholars.**

157. In certain styles, **we, our, ours, us** are used by a single speaker of himself. So, especially by a sovereign: as,

We, Victoria, Queen of England;

also by a writer, an editor or contributor to a periodical, who speaks as if he represented the whole body of people concerned in editing or contributing to the publication for which he writes.

158. The pronoun of the second person singular, **thou** etc., is no longer used by us (as it was used in former times) when ordinarily speaking to one another; but it is left for certain higher and more solemn or more impassioned uses, especially in prayer and in poetry. Thus,

O thou to whom all creatures bow,
How mighty is thy name!

And thou too, whosoe'er thou art,
That readest this brief psalm.

The plural nominative form **ye** (formerly the only nominative case) we use in much the same way: thus,

O night and darkness, ye are wondrous strong!
O ye hard hearts, ye cruel men of Rome!

And **you,** formerly objective only, has become the common pronoun of address, both nominative and objective, and whether we speak to one person or to more than one. Being properly a plural pronoun, **you** takes, when subject, the verb in the plural, even though only one person is addressed: thus,

you are and **you were;** never **you is** and **you was.**

Thou and **ye** (or **you**) are often, like nouns (**141**), used in the ***vocative,*** in calling to persons or things addressed; as in the examples given above.

159. The personal pronoun of the third person, the substitute for the name of anything spoken of, distinguishes not only number and case, but, in the singular, gender also.

That is to say, we use one pronoun when the object referred to is male, another when it is female, and another when it is of no sex, or when we make no account of its sex. The first form is called the MASCULINE, because it stands for a masculine gender-noun (**115**); the second FEMININE, because it stands for a feminine gender-noun; the third NEUTER, because it stands for any noun that is '*neither*' masculine nor feminine.

160. The complete declension, then, of this pronoun is as follows:

	SINGULAR.			PLURAL.
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.	
Nom.	**he**	**she**	**it**	**they**
Poss.	**his**	**her, hers**	**its**	**their, theirs**
Obj.	**him**	**her**	**it**	**them**

161. By the use of the first two forms of this pronoun in the singular, we make a distinction of sex:

1. In those creatures that have evident sex, or in which the difference of sex is an important matter, and especially in human beings, men and women; and

2. Sometimes in *personified* objects — that is, in those which, though we know they are not persons, we yet talk about as if they were so, as if they possessed sex. Thus, we speak of the sun as **he**, and of the moon or the earth or a ship as **she**.

162. On the other hand, even objects that have sex, as the lower animals, are usually or often denoted by **it**, their sex not being of account enough to be noticed. Or, in some cases, we use **he** and **she** of them — as **he** of the dog, and **she** of the cat — without any particular reference to their sex, but because their qualities in general appear to us in that way. And **it** is regularly used as corresponding pronoun to **child, baby** and other such words, because they are not gender-nouns, but imply an overlooking of the sex of the beings signified by them.

163. **It** has a variety of special uses; some of the more important of them are the following:

a. **It** very often stands as subject of a verb instead of a phrase or clause which is the real subject, and which is then put after the verb: thus,

it is not difficult to die; it is doubtful whether he will come; it is to you that I speak;

that is,

to die is not difficult; whether he will come is doubtful; that I speak (that is, **my speaking**) **is to you.**

In such sentences, **it** is called the ***grammatical*** subject; and the word or phrase is called the ***logical*** subject: that is, 'the subject according to the real meaning or *logic* of the sentence.'

b. **It** stands as IMPERSONAL subject of a verb: that is to say, not signifying any real subject, but helping the verb to

express an action or condition without reference to any actor: thus,

it rains; it was cold; it grew dark fast;
it will soon strike ten; is it far to London?
it came to blows between them.

Sometimes also as impersonal object: thus,

they footed it through the streets; he lorded it over them.

164. The words **self** (sing.) and **selves** (plur.) are added to **my, our, thy, your, him, her, it,** and **them,** forming a class of compound personal pronouns, which have two principal uses:

a. To mark emphasis, either alone or (more usually) along with the simple pronoun: thus,

I myself or **me myself; none but herself.**

And these compounds have so assumed the character of emphatic personal pronouns that **myself** and **thyself** are occasionally found, without any preceding **I** and **thou,** as subjects of the verb in the first and second person: thus,

myself am Naples; thyself art God.

b. As the REFLEXIVE object of a verb: that is, an object denoting the same person or thing with the subject (see **306**): thus,

I dress myself; they saw themselves deceived;
you will hurt yourself, or **yourselves.**

Ourself and **yourself** denote a single person; **ourselves** and **yourselves,** more than one.

But the simple pronoun is also sometimes used reflexively: thus,

he laid him down.

165. The possessive cases of these pronouns may also be regarded as possessive adjectives, and will be treated of as such below (**205**).

2. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

166. The only DEMONSTRATIVE pronouns in English are

this and **that,**

in the singular number, and

these and **those,**

the corresponding plurals.

All these words are used both as nominative and as objective cases, and they have no possessive.

Demonstrative means 'pointing out, showing, directing attention to' anything.

167. **This** and **these** are used to mean something nearer; **that** and **those**, something further off.

That and **those** are also much used, instead of **it** and **they**, as ***antecedents*** (**175**) of a relative pronoun: thus, we say

he whom you saw;

but

that (not **it**) **which you saw.**

They are used, too, in place of a noun which would have to be repeated along with a phrase describing it: thus,

my horse and that (not **it**) **of my neighbor;**
home-made articles and those (not **they**) **from abroad.**

168. These words, along with **yon** and **yonder**, have the value also of "demonstrative adjectives," qualifying a following noun: see below, **208.**

Respecting **here** and **there**, used in composition with prepositions in the sense of 'this' and 'that' or 'it' — as in

herewith, therein, thereof, etc. —

see below, **314.**

3. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

169. The INTERROGATIVE (that is, 'inquiring, question-asking') pronouns are

who, what, which, and **whether.**

Their office is to ask a question, or to make an interrogative sentence (**54**); and their usual place is as near as possible to the beginning of the sentence: thus,

who comes here? what does he want?
with whose permission did he leave home?
which of us does he seek?

170. **Who** is used, without any change of form, both as singular and as plural: thus, either

who was here? or **who were here?**

It has, however, like the personal pronouns, three case-forms:

nominative, **who**; possessive, **whose**; objective, **whom.**

The others have no forms of declension, and are used only as nominatives and objectives; **which** is either singular or plural; **what** and **whether** are only singular.

Whether is now hardly used at all, being an old-fashioned word for 'which one of two': thus,

whether is greater, the gift or the altar?

171. Between **who** and **what** we make a distinction different from that which we make anywhere else in the language: **who** (with **whose** and **whom**) is used of persons, human beings; **what** is used of everything else, whether living creatures or inanimate things.

172. **Which** differs from both **who** and **what** in being SELECTIVE: that is, it implies a certain known number or body of individuals, from among whom the right one is to be *selected* or picked out.

Thus, if we say

who did it?

or

what did it?

we do not appear to know anything about the actor; but

which did it?

implies that we know certain persons or things, of which one or another must have been the actor.

Which is used both of persons and of things.

173. **Who** and its cases are pronouns only; **what** and **which** are also "interrogative adjectives": see **209.**

Who and **what** (with other interrogative words) are used in an exclamatory sense: see Chap. XVI. **481.**

Where, in composition with prepositions, is often used, especially in antiquated and solemn style, in the sense of **what**: see **314.**

4. RELATIVE OR CONJUNCTIVE PRONOUNS.

174. The demonstrative pronoun

that,

and the interrogative pronouns

who, what, and **which,**

are also used in a way which is called "relative"; and, when so used, they are known as RELATIVE or CONJUNCTIVE pronouns.

175. A relative refers or *relates* (hence its name) to another noun or pronoun in the same sentence; and that other, as it generally stands first, is called the ANTECEDENT ('one going before, predecessor') of the relative.

But this "relation" is of a peculiar kind. The relative pronoun introduces a separate sentence or "clause" (**415**), having a subject and predicate of its own, and joins that clause on to the antecedent in the way of a description or limitation of it.

The relative may be either the subject or object of a verb, or the object of a preposition, or a qualifying genitive or possessive.

Thus, in

the man who was sick is now well,

the assertion is that a certain man is well, and he is described as having been sick by the clause **who was sick**, where the relative **who** is subject, relating to **man** as antecedent, and **was sick** is predicate. So also in

the gift which you ask shall be bestowed,
he in whom we trust will not fail us,
the boy whose knife was lost has bought another,

gift and **he** and **boy** are the antecedents, and are described by the clauses **which you ask**, and **in whom we trust**, and **whose knife was lost.**

Any word or phrase describing or limiting a noun may be thus turned into a descriptive clause by help of a relative pronoun having the noun as its antecedent. Thus,

a good man

is the same as

a man who is good;

and

this modestly blushing girl

is the same as

this girl that blushes modestly.

It is because the relative thus acts like a conjunction, by joining on a clause to the word which the clause describes, that it is also called a "conjunctive" pronoun.

176. The relatives have their value as such, therefore, only in what are called "complex sentences" (Chap. XIV.): that is, in such as are made up of two or more simple sentences, combined either by these pronouns or by conjunctions into one whole.

The mode of use of these pronouns as relatives is somewhat different from their use as demonstratives and interrogatives, and has to be explained over again.

177. The relative pronoun, when its antecedent is a pronoun of the first or of the second person, shares, as it were, the person of its antecedent, and, if used as subject, takes the verb in the corresponding person: thus,

I, who am your friend, tell you so;

To thee, who hast thy dwelling here on earth.

And in like manner after a vocative: thus,

Dark anthracite, that reddenest on my hearth!

178. Who, when relative just as when interrogative, is used only of persons, and is both singular and plural. It has the possessive **whose** and the objective **whom.**

For example:

the man who was [or **the men who were**] **recently with us, whose character we respected, whom we loved, and with whom we shared joys and sorrows, has** [or **have**] **been taken from us.**

179. When not persons, but other creatures or things, are meant, the corresponding relative is **which** (not **what**, as in interrogative use).

Thus,

we have the letter which he wrote us;
branches which hang from the tree.

Whose is often used as the possessive of **which**: thus,

a tale whose lightest word, etc.;
brown groves whose shadow, etc.:

but many disapprove this in present use, and think it proper to say only **of which** instead.

Which, now used only of things, in old times applied to persons also: thus,

Our Father which art in heaven, etc.

In old English, and rarely even now, **the which** is used instead of simple **which**: for example,

'T was a foolish quest,
The which to gain and keep, he sacrificed all rest.

180. **That** is a very general relative; it may be used instead of either **who** or **which**, referring both to persons and to things, and to one or to more than one. For example:

the head that wears a crown;
one of the best men that ever lived;
wake! all ye that sleep;
repent the evil that you have done.

But **that** as relative does not follow a preposition. We say only **the man of whom, the town from which**, and so on; not **of that** or **from that.**

Yet, if the relative object of a preposition stands apart from it, before the verb (323), either **that** or the other relatives may be used: thus, either

the book that I told you of,

or

the book which I told you of;

but only

the book of which I told you.

Some authorities hold that **who** and **which** are to be used as co-ordinating or simply descriptive relatives, but **that** as limiting or restrictive (**191**): thus,

this soldier, who was recently wounded; clouds, which are bodies of vapor;
but
the soldiers that were wounded were left; a cloud that lay near the horizon;

and so on. But the best English usage by no means requires such a distinction.

181. **What** differs from the other relatives, in that it does not have an antecedent actually expressed in the sentence, but itself implies both antecedent and relative, or is equivalent to **that which** (**that** demonstrative and **which** relative). It is not used of persons. Thus:

what he says is true; I saw what he was doing;
he understands of what (*i. e.* that of which) **you were speaking.**

In older English, **that** was often used in the same way: thus,

throw us that you have about you; do that is righteous.

A word that combines thus the office of antecedent and relative is usually (and conveniently and properly enough) called a COMPOUND RELATIVE.

182. But **who** and **which** often have the same compound relative value (chiefly in objective clauses, or such as are the objects of verbs or prepositions: see **434**); and, when used in this way, **which** regains the special *selective* meaning which belongs to it as interrogative (**172**).

For example:

we well know who did it, and whose fault it was, and whom people blame for it, and which of them most deserves blame.

183. When the implied antecedent is of a more indefinite or undetermined character, meaning 'any one, any thing, any one of them,' we use the compounds **whoever, whatever, whichever** — less often, **whosoever**, etc.; and, in old style, **whoso**: thus,

whoever did it ought to be ashamed;
he will give you whichever you want;
they overthrow whatever opposes them.

These words are called INDEFINITE relatives.

184. The simple relative pronoun **that**, when object of a verb, or of a preposition following a verb, is very often omitted, the descriptive clause being thus left without any introducing word: thus,

the man we saw here is gone;
the horse he rode on was lame;

instead of **the man that** (or **whom**) **we saw, the horse that** (or **which**) **he rode on**, etc.

In older English, and sometimes still in antiquated or solemn style and in poetry, **that** as relative subject is also omitted: thus,

I have a grief admits no cure;
'T is distance lends enchantment to the view.

185. The adverbs **when, where, whence, why, whither, how**, related with **who** and **what**, are used in a relative sense almost as if they were cases of these words, or equivalent to **what** and **which** with prepositions; and they have the same double value, as simple and as compound relatives — except **how**, which is only compound. Thus,

you see the place where (= in which) he stands;

or

you see where (= in what place) he stands.

And the same thing is true of the compounds of **where** with prepositions: thus, **wherewith, whereby, wherein**, and so on (**314**).

186. The conjunction **as** is sometimes used, especially after **such**, with the value of a relative pronoun: thus,

I love such as love me;

such as meaning here the same as **those who.**

This is a contracted or shorter expression for **such persons as those are who**, etc.

187. By a yet more remarkable contraction, **but** is occasionally used after a negative verb as a kind of negative relative, equivalent to **that not**: thus,

there is not a man here but knows it;

that is, 'a man that does not know it.' It is a contraction for **not a man but one who knows.**

5. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

188. It is usual to put into a class together, under the name of INDEFINITE pronouns, certain words which, either by their derivation or by the way in which they are used, have a likeness to pronouns. Most of them are used as adjectives also (**211**); and they in fact occupy a kind of intermediate position

between real pronouns on the one hand, and nouns and adjectives on the other.

189. To this class belong:

The distributives **each, either,** and **neither.**

The words of number and quantity **some, any, many, few, all, both, one** and **none, aught** and **naught.**

The compounds of **some, any, every,** and **no,** with **one, thing,** and **body:** as **something, anyone, nobody;** also **somewhat.**

The comparatives **such, other.**

Of these words, only **one** and **other** have plural forms, **ones** and **others**; and they only rarely or never (except **one** and **other** and the compounds of **one, thing,** and **body**) form a genitive case.

Each other and **one another** are pronoun-phrases, having a RECIPROCAL or 'mutual' sense, and now used as if simple pronouns. By origin,

fond of one another,

for example, is really

one fond of another,

and

they love each other

is

they love, each (of them the) **other,**

each being in apposition (378) with **they**: and so on.

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER VI.

ON PRONOUNS.

In parsing a pronoun, we have first to tell to which of the five classes — personal, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, or indefinite — it belongs. Then, if it is personal or relative, its person must be defined; if of the third person singular, its gender.

If it is a simple relative, its antecedent is to be pointed out; if a compound relative, the equivalent antecedent and simple relative are to be given.

If it is inflected, the declension is to be given, and the case and number are to be defined.

The constructions of a pronoun are the same with those of a noun.

Example of parsing pronouns.

These are the men, some of whom visited us yesterday.

We first divide the sentence into its two clauses (or the two minor sentences of which it is made up), and point out the bare subject and predicate of each. If written, the clause containing the relative may be put under the other, and in such a way that the relative comes directly beneath its antecedent; and then the two latter may be joined by a bracket, to signify that their relation is what binds the two clauses together into one sentence. Thus:

These | **are** the men
some of whom | **visited** us yesterday.

It will be pointed out later, in the Syntax (Chap. XIV.), that such a sentence as this is called "complex," and that the clause containing the relative is called an "adjective clause," because it describes the noun **men**.

In parsing, we take up the words in the same order as hitherto.

These is a demonstrative pronoun, in the plural number (sing. **this**, pl. **these**), and nominative case, being the subject of the sentence, or subject-nominative of the verb **are**.

The rest of the words in the first or main clause are passed over here, as they are like words already parsed (at the end of the preceding chapter).

Some is an indefinite pronoun (of number or quantity); it is uninflected, but has here the value of a plural, since it signifies more than one man, and of a nominative case, because it is the subject of the sentence, or subject-nominative of the verb **visited**.

Whom is a relative pronoun, having for its antecedent **men**, and joining to **men** the descriptive clause **some of whom visited us yesterday**, in order to show *what* men are meant. It is of the third person, and plural, because its antecedent **men** is so; and in the objective case, because it is the object of the preposition **of**, being joined by **of** to **some**, in order to show *what* the persons signified by **some** are a part of.

Of should be next described, and then **visited**, in the same manner as before (p. 63); and then we take up **us**.

Us is a personal pronoun, of the first person, inflected thus: **I**, **my** or **mine** (etc.: **155**); it is in the plural number, and in the objective case, because it is the direct object of the verb **visited**, being added to the verb to show *whom* the persons referred to visited.

Yesterday is an adverb, qualifying the verb **visited**, being added to it to show the *time* of visiting.

If we have a relative pronoun belonging not to the subject but to the predicate of the clause in which it occurs, we must rearrange the clause so as to put the relative into the usual place of such a member of the sentence, whatever it may be. Thus, in the expressions

the man whom we saw, the book which he was talking of,

we must change the order of the relative clauses to

we saw whom, he was talking of which.

This makes the clauses seem strange and unnatural, because in our ways of speaking we always put the relative at or near the head of its clause; but the rearrangement is important, in order to help the scholar to realize what part the relative, notwithstanding its position, really bears in the making-up of the sentence. Then we still put the relative just beneath its antecedent: thus,

the man	**is gone**
we saw whom.	

I	**found the book**
he was talking of which.	

In order to make this arrangement, a compound relative has to be taken apart into the antecedent and simple relative which would have the same value; and then, after the two are connected by the bracket, the word which they represent may be written beside them: thus, the sentence

I cannot imagine what you are talking about

would be rearranged in this manner:

I cannot imagine that	**what**
you are talking about which	

In the Syntax (Chapter XIV.), we shall learn another and briefer way of treating a compound relative clause: calling it, namely, a "substantive clause," and (in an example like that given here) itself the object of the verb.

EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE IN PARSING PRONOUNS.

For practice in parsing the pronouns, especially the personal pronouns, in their simpler constructions, the exercises to Chapter II. (pp. 21–23) may be resorted to. The additional sentences here given illustrate especially the relatives, and the more exceptional uses of the other pronouns.

X. Miscellaneous Examples.

The sun seemed shorn of his beams.
Earth with her thousand voices praises God.
The forest's leaping panther shall yield his spotted hide.

Jura answers, through her misty shroud,
Back to the joyous Alps, who call to her aloud.

Here folly still his votaries inthralls.
The fur which warms a monarch warmed a bear.
We were not born to sue.
It was told the king of Egypt that the people fled.
To him it mattered little which of the two parties triumphed.
Who hath redness of eyes?
Whether of them twain did the will of his father?
I that speak to thee am he.
His praise is lost who waits till all commend.

All that wealth e'er gave
Awaits alike the inevitable hour.

He that would honor win must not fear dying.
I could a tale unfold whose lightest word would harrow up thy soul.
He that endureth to the end shall be saved.
Few shall part where many meet.
By others' faults wise men correct their own.
Some are happy while others are miserable.
Some of his skill he taught to me.
The many rend the skies with loud applause.
None but the brave deserves the fair.
Neither has anything he calls his own.
In this 't is God directs, in that 't is man.

I hear a voice you cannot hear,
Which says I must not stay.

'T is Providence alone secures
In every change both mine and yours.

Few and short were the prayers we said.
Whoso sheddeth man's blood, by man shall his blood be shed.

CHAPTER VII.

ADJECTIVES.

190. An adjective, as we saw in the chapter on the parts of speech (**37-39**), is a word used to qualify a noun. It is a descriptive word, pointing out some quality or condition or action or relation, or the like, as belonging to the object signified by the noun it qualifies. For example:

good man;	**fast horse;**
red ribbon;	**quiet sea;**
jumping frog;	**whipped dog;**
this book;	**yonder tree.**

191. The adjective added to a noun does not directly assert anything to belong to what the noun expresses. That can only be done by means of a verb: thus,

the man is good; **the horse is fast;**
the ribbon is red; and so on.

The adjective merely mentions the quality, etc., either implying that the quality might be asserted, or limiting the noun to those objects of which the quality might be asserted.

The adjective is sometimes a more important and sometimes a less important addition to the noun and member of the sentence. If we say, for example,

the brave soldier was wounded with a sharp sword, and his red blood flowed from the deep cut,

the adjectives **brave, sharp, red,** and **deep** are simply descriptive or pictorial, and the sentence would mean essentially the same thing if they were omitted. But if we say

brave soldiers do not run away;
sharp swords make deep cuts;
only vertebrates have red blood;

the same adjectives are of much more consequence; since it is implied in each

case that, if the described quality were wanting, something quite different would be true.

According to this difference in its value, the adjective is called DESCRIPTIVE or CO-ORDINATING on the one hand, and LIMITING or RESTRICTIVE on the other. But the distinction is one that belongs properly to logic, and not to grammar.

192. Adjectives, like nouns (117), are divided according to their form into simple, derivative, and compound.

SIMPLE adjectives are those which we cannot in our own language trace back to yet simpler words, from which they are seen to be derived.

Examples of such are

good,	**red,**	**round,**
kind,	**harsh,**	**sincere.**

193. DERIVATIVE adjectives come, by additions or other changes of form, from other words that are in use in our language.

Some of the commonest and most important classes of derivative adjectives are as follows:

a. Adjectives derived from nouns, by a great variety of suffixes, and with a great variety of meanings: they signify resembling, pertaining to, possessing, characterized by, made of, free from, etc., etc., that which is signified by the noun. Thus:

with **ly,**	**fatherly, homely, daily;**
with **ful,**	**truthful, hateful, useful;**
with **ous,**	**odorous, mischievous, murderous;**
with **al,**	**brutal, fatal, national;**
with **ic,**	**despotic, telegraphic;**
with **able,**	**marriageable, peaceable;**
with **y,**	**filthy, hearty, misty;**
with **ish,**	**childish, foolish, Turkish;**
with **some,**	**troublesome, toilsome;**
with **less,**	**fearless, homeless, endless;**
with **en,**	**wooden, golden, silken;**
with **ed,**	**horned, jacketed, barefooted.**

b. Adjectives derived from other adjectives, by suffixes denoting especially a difference of degree (including the suffixes of comparison: see **77, 78**). For example:

with **er**, **smaller, longer, prettier;**
with **est**, **tallest, strongest, ugliest;**
with **ish**, **bluish, roundish, youngish;**
with **ly**, **weakly, cleanly, deadly;**
with **some**, **wholesome, gladsome, wearisome.**

c. Adjectives derived from verbs. These are especially the so-called "participles" (**238**): the present participle in **ing**, as

loving, giving, putting;

and the past participle in **ed**, or **en**, or without any added suffix, as

loved, varied, petted;
given, bitten, slain;
sung, wound, fought.

There is also the common verbal adjective in **able**, as

lovable, disputable, distinguishable.

d. Adjectives derived from other adjectives by prefixes: as,

with **un**, **untrue, unfaithful, unending;**
with **in**, **inactive, incapable, impure;**

and others, much less numerous and regular: as,

international, extraordinary, antenuptial, postdiluvial, preternatural, subacid, superabundant, co-eternal, malcontent.

194. COMPOUND adjectives are made by putting together two (rarely more) words that are used independently in our language.

The most important classes of compound adjectives are these:

a. A combination of two adjectives, the former having usually the value of an adverb qualifying the other: as

newborn (that is, 'newly born'), **full-fed,**
hard-gotten, fresh-looking.

b. A combination of an adjective with a preceding noun that limits it in a variety of ways: thus,

lifelike,	**milk-white,**	**knee-high,**
homesick,	**soul-stirring,**	**water-tight.**

c. A combination of a noun with a preceding adjective that qualifies it, and with **ed** added as adjective suffix: as,

fourfooted,	**red-haired,**	**low-toned,**
seven-hilled,	**dark-eyed,**	**old-fashioned.**

This class, derivative and compound together, is an immense one, and all the time growing by new formations.

d. A combination of an adjective with a preceding adverb: examples are

everlasting,	**never-dying,**	**over-bold,**
under-bred,	**inbred,**	**foreordained.**

195. From the whole body of adjectives — which, like nouns and verbs, are innumerable — we have to separate and treat by themselves certain special and limited classes: namely, PRONOMINAL adjectives, or adjectives related with pronouns; adjectives of number, or NUMERALS; and the ARTICLES.

Apart from these special classes, the general mass of adjectives may be conveniently called the

ADJECTIVES OF QUALITY.

196. Adjectives do not have in English (as they have in many other languages) any inflection, or variation of form, to express differences of number or case or gender.

The only exceptions are the pronominal adjectives (**208**; or also pronouns, **166**) **this** and **that**, which with a plural noun are changed to **these** and **those**: thus,

this man,	**these men;**
that book,	**those books.**

This is a relic of the inflection of adjectives in ancient English, which was of the same sort as the inflection of nouns.

197. But (as we saw in the chapter on inflection, 77) many adjectives have a change of form to mark the degree of the quality they signify as possessed by the object they describe, when compared with other objects possessing the same quality.

Thus, to say

a long string

simply implies the quality of length as belonging to the string spoken of;

a longer string

implies that, of two strings compared, the one referred to exceeds the other in length;

the longest string

implies that, among any number compared, the one so called excels all the rest in length.

The word **longer** is said to be of the COMPARATIVE degree, and the word **longest** of the SUPERLATIVE degree (*superlative* means 'surpassing' or 'exceeding'); and then the simple adjective **long**, with reference to them, is said to be of the POSITIVE degree.

And the variation of form of the adjective in this way is called its COMPARISON (because of the comparing of one thing with others which it implies).

198. The comparative degree strictly implies a comparison between two objects, the superlative between more than two. Yet we sometimes say, for example, **longer than all the others**, though **longer than either** or **than any of the others** would be better. And, on the other hand, both in ordinary talk and in literature, it is very common to speak of one of two things as being **the longest**, although to say **the longer** is more accurate and more approved.

199. What adjectives shall be thus compared depends partly on their meaning, since some qualities or conditions hardly admit of a difference of degree: for example,

equal, dead, second, yearly, French.

But it depends much more on their form.

Most adjectives of one syllable may be compared: thus,

short,	**shorter,**	**shortest;**
fit,	**fitter,**	**fittest;**
dry,	**drier,**	**driest;**

but comparatively few of two syllables: examples are

sincere,	**sincerer,**	**sincerest;**
able,	**abler,**	**ablest;**
guilty,	**guiltier,**	**guiltiest;**
handsome,	**handsomer,**	**handsomest;**
common,	**commoner,**	**commonest;**

and of three syllables, almost none.

200. Adjectives which are not compared have their variations of degree expressed by qualifying words, adverbs. And especially, the addition of **more** and **most** makes a kind of compound forms, or adjective phrases, which have the same meaning as the comparative and superlative degrees: thus,

famous,	**more famous,**	**most famous;**
distant,	**more distant,**	**most distant.**

Even adjectives which admit comparison often form phrases of this kind instead: thus,

fit,	**more fit,**	**most fit;**
able,	**more able,**	**most able;**
common,	**more common,**	**most common.**

And where an object is said to have more of one quality than of another, the phrase with **more** is alone used: thus,

the news was more true than pleasant (not **truer than pleasant**).

201. As the examples already given show, the comparative and superlative degrees are formed from the simple adjective, or the positive degree, by adding respectively **er** or **r**, and **est** or **st**, the suffix usually making an additional syllable in pronunciation (not, however, in **abler, ablest,** and the like).

202. A few adjectives are irregularly compared: thus,

good forms **better** and **best**;

bad or **ill** forms **worse** (rarely **worser**) and **worst.**

little forms **less** (sometimes **lesser**) and **least.**

many or **much** form **more** and **most.**

old forms **older** and **oldest**, as well as **elder** and **eldest.**

latter and **last** really come from **late**, which, however, in its usual sense, is compared also regularly, **later** and **latest.**

near (itself properly a comparative of **nigh**) forms the superlative **next**, as well as **nearest.**

A certain number of comparatives and superlatives have no adjective, but an adverb, for their positive degree; and the superlatives have usually the irregular ending **most** — which, moreover, is often added to the comparative degree. Examples are

from **in**: **inner, inmost** or **innermost**;
from **out**: **outer, outmost** or **outermost**;
from **up**: **upper, upmost** (rare) or **uppermost.**

Utter and **utmost** or **uttermost** are originally the same with **outer** etc.

Forth forms **further** and **furthest** or **furthermost**, and also **farther** and **farthest** — these last two as if from **far**, and answering as its degrees of comparison likewise.

Fore (sometimes itself used as an adjective) makes **former** and **foremost** or **first.**

A kind of superlative is also sometimes formed with **most** from words which do not distinguish any positive and comparative: for example,

midmost, undermost, hithermost, nethermost, northernmost, southmost; and even, in one or two cases, from nouns: as,

endmost, topmost.

203. The use of adjectives substantively, or as nouns, has been already explained (**144**).

But an adjective, without being used as a noun, very often stands alone, as qualifying a noun that is ***understood*** (**483**), or to be supplied in mind from the connection. For example:

he owns a white horse, and I a black [horse];
his horse is white, but mine [my horse] **is black;**
he is a just [man], **but not a generous man;**
she was by far the loveliest [girl] **of the three girls.**

And a comparative or superlative is sometimes used alone where with a positive we should have to use **one**, or a noun, or the like: thus,

she was the loveliest among the three;
of the pair, she was the lovelier;

while we should say

she was the lovely one of the family.

It may fairly be made a question here whether we shall describe the adjective as qualifying a noun not expressed, or as used substantively; probably the latter is to be preferred.

Many adjectives, as we shall see later (**313 d**), are used without change as adverbs.

But both nouns and adverbs are also used as adjectives, qualifying nouns.

Adverbs, indeed, only rarely (except in the predicate: **382**), and by a liberty which is not generally approved: as,

the then ruler; **my sometime friend.**

But nouns, especially those denoting material, are very often made adjectives of, without any change of form: thus,

a gold watch; **a rail fence;**
a steel pen; **a stone wall;**
a horse laugh; **a bible text;**
noonday dreams; **country customs.**

Such expressions originated with compounds, of the kind mentioned in **119 c**; but they have ceased to be felt and treated as compounds.

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

204. Pronominal adjectives are in part derivatives from the words already described as pronouns; but in greater part they are identical with them, the same word being used either adjectively, accompanying a noun which it qualifies, or substantively, as pronoun, standing for a noun.

They are divided into classes corresponding with those of the pronouns.

205. The first class is that of POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES, or, more briefly, POSSESSIVES.

These correspond to the personal pronouns (**153** etc.): they are, in fact, adjectively used forms of those pronouns, and have already been given and described as possessive cases. Some of them are real cases, others are derivative adjectives used in the manner of cases; they have become so alike in use that we cannot well help treating them all as possessing both characters.

206. The possessives are:

		Sing.	Pl.
1st p.		**my, mine;**	**our, ours;**
2d p.		**thy, thine;**	**your, yours;**
3d p.	m.	**his;**	**their, theirs.**
	f.	**her, hers;**	
	n.	**its;**	

to which may be added **whose**, the possessive of **who**, both as interrogative and as relative.

The distinction of person, gender, and number in these words is, of course, a distinction belonging to the persons or things possessing, and not to the persons or things possessed, or those qualified by the possessives.

207. The second forms — **mine, thine, hers, ours, yours, theirs** — are used when no qualified noun follows the possessive: for example,

my book and yours; your book and mine;
the book is hers, not theirs; good morning, brother mine!
this man is a friend of ours.

But in older English, and in old-style English, **mine** and **thine** are frequently found instead of **my** and **thy**, especially before a vowel: thus,

mine own eyes, thine every wish.

208. The DEMONSTRATIVE ADJECTIVES are

this, these; that, those; yon, yonder.

The first two pairs are the same as the demonstrative pronouns (**166**), and are used with the same differences of meaning when adjectives as when pronouns.

Yon or **yonder** points to a remoter object, generally to one in sight.

209. The interrogative pronouns **who** and **whether** not used also as adjectives. But **which** and **what** are used, and are therefore INTERROGATIVE ADJECTIVES. of them apply either to persons or to things, and the only in that **which** is *selective* (**172**).

Thus, in general,

what book have you?

but, if two or more are had distinctly in mind, and the question is as to the individual one among them,

which book have you?

210. Which and **what** are also the only RELATIVE ADJECTIVES. Both are usually compound relatives, or imply the antecedent along with the relative, and **which** differs from **what** in being selective.

Thus,

I know what book (that is, **the book** in general **which**) **you mean;**

I know which book (that is, **the book** in particular, of a certain known set, **which**) **you mean.**

But **which** appears sometimes as a simple relative: thus,

he was gone a year, during which time he travelled all over Europe.

The compound forms **whichever** and **whatever**, and so on (**183**), have the value of adjectives as well as of pronouns, and with a like meaning.

211. Most of the so-called indefinite pronouns (**188**), with one or two other kindred words, are used also as INDEFINITE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Distributive adjectives are **each** and **every, either** and **neither.** Of these, **every** is always adjective only.

Quantitatives are **some, any, many, few, all, both,** and **no.**

The phrases **a great many** and **a few** (also **a little**) are used with a following noun much as if they were simple adjectives: thus,

a great many men have been there; he paused a few minutes.

The quantitative is here really a noun, and the following noun is a partitive genitive.

By a very peculiar construction, **many** (which is otherwise used only with plural nouns) qualifies a singular noun preceded by **an** or **a**: thus,

full many a gem; innocence itself has many a wile

Comparatives are **such** and **other: such** implying resemblance, and **other** difference. **Other** is followed by **than,** like comparatives adjectives in general: thus,

other worlds than ours.

The *quantitatives* are often called INDEFINITE NUMERALS, from their use in describing number. But there is also a special class of words used in counting and so on, which are quite peculiar, so that they are sometimes reckoned even as a separate part of speech. These are the

NUMERALS.

212. The principal NUMERALS are those used in counting, or in answering the question "how many?"

They are (in contrast with the ordinals, explained below, **216**) called the CARDINAL numerals, or the CARDINALS (*cardinal* means, as used here, 'principal, most important').

213. The cardinals are

one, two, three, four, and so on;
eleven, twelve, thirteen, and so on;
ten, twenty, thirty, forty, and so on;
hundred, thousand, million, and so on.

214. The cardinals are used not only as adjectives, qualifying a noun, but also substantively, standing for a noun, or connected with the following noun by the preposition **of.** Thus, either

three men,

or

three of the men.

Used as nouns, they may all form plurals: thus,

they walked by twos and threes;
we are all at sixes and sevens;
they sat down by fifties and hundreds.

But the higher numbers, **hundred, thousand, million,** and so on, usually keep the singular form in simple enumeration, even after **two, three,** etc.; and always, if they form part of a compound number, made up of different denominations. Thus, we say

two hundred, or **two hundreds;**
five thousand, or **five thousands;**
ten million, or **ten millions;**

but

ten thousand six hundred;

six million three hundred and twenty thousand four hundred and thirty-six.

215. For **two**, an old form **twain** is still sometimes used; and **dozen** is a common substitute for **twelve**, and **score** for **twenty**.

From the cardinals come certain classes of derivative words. Thus:

216. First, the ORDINALS, which show the '*order*' of anything in a series.

The ordinals are mostly formed from the cardinals by the suffix **th**: thus,

fourth, fifth, sixteenth, seventieth, eighty-ninth,
eighteen hundred and seventy-seventh, and so on.

But the ordinals of **one, two, three** are

first, second, third;

and these are used also in the compound numbers: as,

twenty-first, ninety-second, hundred and third.

217. The same words, except **first** and **second**, are used to denote one of a corresponding number of equal parts into which anything is supposed to be divided.

Thus, **a third** (or **third part**) **of an apple;**
six hundredths of the amount.

In this sense, they are called FRACTIONALS.

The fractional corresponding to **two** is **half** instead of **second**; and instead of **fourth** we more often say **quarter**.

218. In order to show how many times anything is taken, or by what it is multiplied, the cardinal numeral is compounded with the word **fold**: thus,

twofold, tenfold, hundred-fold.

These words, as they imply multiplication, are called MULTIPLICATIVES.

Of the same value are

simple, double, triple, quadruple,

and a few others in **ple**, much less often used.

The numeral adverbs

once, twice, thrice,

also have a similar multiplicative sense.

ARTICLES.

219. The ARTICLES are two words of somewhat peculiar character and office.

One, the word **an** or **a**, is called the INDEFINITE ARTICLE, and is used only with a singular noun; the other, **the**, is called the DEFINITE ARTICLE.

220. The articles are adjective words, since they are always used along with nouns, to limit or qualify them — in ways which it is quite needless to attempt to define here.

The is a weakened form of the demonstrative adjective **that.**
An or **a** is a weakened form of the numeral **one.**

221. **An** is used before a vowel-sound, **a** before a consonant.

But if a word beginning with a pronounced **h** has the accent on its second syllable, many (or most) persons use **an**: thus,

an hotel; an historical novel; an hypothesis.

Before the sound of **y** or **w**, however written, only **a** is proper in modern use: thus,

such a one; a union; a European;

just as we should say **a wonder, a youth.**

The **the** which we often use before a comparative (adjective or adverb), in such phrases as

the more the merrier,
the more he looked at her the less he liked her,
are they the worse to me because you hate them?

is not an article at all, but an adverb (**313 e**).

Again, in phrases like

two miles an hour, three shillings a yard,

the **an** or **a** is not precisely the article, but a weakened form of **one** in another sense, that of 'each *one*, each, every.'

Once more, in

he is gone a hunting, they set it a going,

and the like (which are often, and better, written **a-hunting, a-going**), the **a** has nothing to do with either the article or the numeral, but is a remnant of an old preposition, generally **on.**

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER VII.

ON ADJECTIVES.

To parse an adjective, we have to tell first whether it is an ordinary adjective ("adjective of quality"), or whether it is a pronominal adjective, a numeral, or an article.

If a pronominal adjective, its class (whether possessive, demonstrative, interrogative, relative, or indefinite) must be told; and if possessive, from the personal pronoun of what person and number it comes.

If a numeral, whether it is used with the value of an adjective or of a noun, and whether cardinal, ordinal, or fractional.

If an article, whether the definite article or the indefinite; if the latter, why **an** and not **a**, or the contrary.

The character of the word as simple or derivative or compound may be given (at the option of the teacher), and, if not simple, its derivation or composition explained.

If the adjective is comparative or superlative, the fact is to be mentioned, and the three degrees of comparison are to be given.

An adjective has but one general construction, that of qualifying a noun. But it does this in three different ways, which are more fully distinguished and defined in the Syntax (Chapter XIII.): they are called, 1. ATTRIBUTIVE: as, **eminent men**; 2. APPOSITIVE: as, **men eminent for their services**; 3. PREDICATIVE (40): as, **men are eminent according to their services.**

Example of parsing adjectives.

This studious boy | is the best scholar among all my hundred pupils.

After dividing the sentence as we have done before, we first parse **boy**, the bare subject, and then go on to take up the adjectives qualifying it.

Studious is a common adjective, derivative (it comes from the noun **study**, with the ending **ous**, and means 'devoted to study'), and qualifies **boy**, telling *what kind* of boy is spoken of.

This is a pronominal adjective, demonstrative; it is in the singular number (the plural being **these**), to agree (76) with the noun **boy**, which it qualifies, being added to show *which* studious boy is meant.

In the predicate of the sentence, we take up first (after the verb **is**) the predicate noun **scholar**, and then the adjectives that qualify it.

Best is an adjective, in the superlative degree; it is compared irregularly: thus, **good, better, best**; it qualifies **scholar**, being added to show *what kind* of a scholar is meant.

The is a definite article, qualifying **scholar.** (There is no use in making a pupil try to define the kind of meaning signified by an article.)

Next we parse **pupils** (as joined by the preposition **among** to **best scholar**, to show *who* they are that are exceeded in scholarship), and then its qualifiers.

Hundred is a cardinal numeral, used as an adjective qualifying **pupils**, being added to show *how many* the pupils are.

My is a possessive (either possessive case or possessive pronominal adjective), from the pronoun of the first person singular, **I**; and it qualifies **pupils**, showing *whose* hundred pupils are meant.

All is an indefinite pronominal adjective, qualifying **pupils**, being added to show *how many* of the hundred pupils are intended.

If we have a clause containing a relative pronominal adjective, we are obliged, in order to arrange it in its proper relation to the other clause of the sentence, to take the noun and adjective apart into an antecedent noun and relative pronoun. Thus, we arrange the sentences

what pupils are here came early,
we know to which class they belong,

in the following manner:

those pupils who | came early | are here; **we | know the class they | belong to which.**

XI. Exercise for practice in parsing adjectives.

The gentle rain refreshed the thirsty flowers.

A transient calm the happy scenes bestow.

He was a ready orator, an elegant poet, a skilful gardener, an excellent cook, and a most contemptible sovereign.

Her mother seemed the youngest of the two.

I promise thee the fairest wife in Greece.

Stains of vice disgrace
The fairest honors of the noblest race.

Beneath those rugged elms, that yew-tree's shade,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

The gorgeous East, with richest hand,
Showers on her kings barbaric pearl and gold.

Very few people are good economists of their fortune.
Many a carol, old and saintly, sang the minstrels.
God in the nature of each being founds its proper bliss.
Such a man will win any woman.
Any girl, however inexperienced, knows how to accept an offer.
A hundred winters snowed upon his breast.
Every third word is a lie.
These young men were wild and unsteady.
By that sin fell the angels.

Thebes did his rude unknowing youth engage;
He chooses Athens in his riper age.

Ayr, gurgling, kissed his pebbled shore,
O'erhung with wild woods, thickening, green;
The fragrant birch and hawthorn hoar
Twined amorous round the raptured scene.

A little learning is a dangerous thing.
Great is truth, and mighty above all things.
Unto the pure all things are pure.

A thousand flowers enchant the gale
With perfume sweet as love's first kiss.

With lower, second, and third stories shalt thou make it.
In him the emotive was subjected to the intellectual man.
They expiate less with greater crimes.
My father gave me honor, yours gave land.
The lady is dead upon mine and my master's false accusation.
There will a worse come in his place.
Ambition makes my little less.

CHAPTER VIII.

VERBS.

222. We found above (**28** etc.), when examining the parts of speech, that a VERB is a word that tells, or declares, or asserts something; it implies an assertion or predication.

Hence, as a sentence is an assertion or declaration of something, every sentence must have a verb in it; the verb forms, alone or with other words, the predicate (**27**) of a sentence. Thus, in

Troy was, **he sleeps,**
they went, **the boy was beaten,**

there is an assertion, in each separate case, of a being, or a condition, or an action, or the enduring of an action, on the part of that which is expressed by the subject of the verb.

223. Verbs are as many, and of as various meaning, in a language, as nouns and adjectives, and it is quite impossible to classify them by their meanings. But there is a certain difference of use which separates them into two principal classes.

Some verbs are usually, and almost necessarily, followed by an *object* — that is, by a noun or pronoun in the objective case, signifying that at which the action of the verb is directed (**71**).

Thus,

I await, **I persuade,** **I cross,**

seem by themselves incomplete, and we look for some word expressing the thing or person that is awaited or persuaded or crossed: thus,

I await the arrival of the mail;
I persuade my friend to go with me;
I cross the road to meet him.

Other verbs, again, do not take, or are hardly able to take, any such object; the action which they express they express completely, without an added object: for example,

I walk, stand, rejoice, weep, and so on.

A verb of the former class is said to be a TRANSITIVE verb, or to be used TRANSITIVELY (*transitive* means 'going over': that is, the action of the verb is fancifully said to "pass over" from the subject to an object); one of the latter class is called INTRANSITIVE.

But this distinction is by no means an absolute one; many verbs are freely used in both these ways, and there is hardly a transitive verb in our language that may not also be used intransitively.

224. According to their form, verbs (like nouns and adjectives) are either simple or derivative or compound.

Simple verbs are such as

be, go, sit, see, give, write.

225. The most important classes of derivative verbs are as follows:

a. Verbs derived by suffixes, from adjectives and (much more rarely) from nouns. The only common suffix is **en**: thus,

broaden, harden, fasten, sicken, lengthen, frighten.

A few words have the suffix **ize**: as,

solemnize, humanize.

b. Verbs derived by prefixes. These come especially from other verbs: as,

awake, arise; befall, belie, bespeak;
forget, forgive, forswear; mistake, misbehave;
unbind, undo, unfasten; disqualify, disown, dislike;
remind, recapture, repay.

But also from nouns and adjectives: as,

benight, behead, belittle;
enthrone, endanger, embody;
renew.

A few take the suffix **en** along with a prefix : as,

embolden, enlighten.

c. Verbs derived by internal change, by alteration of the vowel-sound, sometimes along with other changes, from other verbs : thus,

fell from **fall**; **set** from **sit**;
lay from **lie**; **drench** from **drink.**

These are called CAUSATIVES, because they generally signify a *causing* to act : thus, **fell** means 'cause to fall'; **lay** means 'cause to lie,' and so on. There are but few of them in English.

d. A very large number of nouns and adjectives are turned directly into verbs, without addition of suffix or prefix, or any other alteration — except sometimes the change of a final consonant (**99**). Examples are :

to throng or **crowd a room,** **to beard** or **face a foe,**
to time a race, **to worship God,**
to witness a will, **to english a passage,**
to brown a cake, **to round an angle,**
to smooth a wrinkle, **to lower a bucket,**
to halve an apple, **to breathe a prayer.**

Verbs derived from nouns and adjectives, in any of the ways here pointed out, are sometimes called DENOMINATIVES ('derived from nouns').

226. Compound verbs are made almost solely with prefixes, having the value of adverbs, but adverbs which are also prepositions, and are more usually called such. Examples are :

foresee,	**forebode,**	**foredoom,**
overspread,	**overturn,**	**overlook,**
outwit,	**outnumber,**	**outgrow,**
undermine,	**understand,**	**underlet,**
uplift,	**uproot,**	**upset,**
withstand,	**withhold,**	**withdraw.**

A very few compound verbs have as their first element a noun or adjective : for example,

partake (that is, **take part**),
browbeat, backslide, fulfil.

227. Verbs, like nouns and pronouns, have (as we have already seen, **59** etc.) their inflection, or changes of form in order to express certain changes of meaning or of application; and this inflection is called their CONJUGATION.

228. Thus, verbs are varied, to a certain extent, not because of any change in their own individual meaning, but in consequence of certain differences in the character of their subject — differences, namely, in the number or in the person of the noun or pronoun about which they assert something.

This is called the inflection of the verb for PERSON and NUMBER.

229. For example, along with the personal pronouns of the three persons (**153** etc.), in the singular, we use three different forms of the verb, saying

I love, thou lovest, he loves.

But no English verb has different forms to put with the plurals of these pronouns: thus,

we love, you love, they love.

And often the verb of the third person singular is the same with that of the first: thus,

I loved, he loved; I can, he can.

230. As regards number, the forms of the verb which go with **thou** and with **you** are generally different: thus,

thou lovest, you love;

and the forms which go with singular and plural subjects of the third person are often different: thus,

he loves (or **loveth**), **they love;**
man loves, men love.

But the form with **I** and with **we** is always the same: thus,

I love, we love.

Except in one irregular verb (**be, 273**), which has a special form for its three plural persons, different from any of those of the singular: thus,

I am, we or **you** or **they are;**
I was, we or **you** or **they were.**

231. Again, verbs are varied in two respects to signify real differences of meaning belonging to themselves. This is called the inflection of the verb for TENSE and MODE.

232. Tense-inflection is for the purpose of showing a difference in the *time* of the action or condition.

Thus, **I love** is used especially of what is going on now, at the present time, and is therefore said to be of the PRESENT TENSE; while **I loved** is used of something gone by or in the past, and is therefore called the PRETERIT TENSE. And we have in like manner, as corresponding present and preterit,

I lead and **I led;**
I hold and **I held;**
I give and **I gave.**

These two are the only tenses distinguished by real inflection in our verb.

233. Mode-inflection is for the purpose of showing a difference in the *mode* or manner of the assertion: whether it be a simple out-and-out declaration, or a doubtful or contingent assertion, or a command.

The modes are three:

1. The INDICATIVE, or the mode of simple declaration: thus,

I am, he goes, they went.

2. The SUBJUNCTIVE, the mode of doubtful or conditional assertion: thus,

if I be; though he go; supposing he were here;
except God be with him; lest she forget her duty.

3. The IMPERATIVE, the mode of command or demand: thus,

go away! **be silent!** **leave us,** **see him.**

234. The indicative is the mode of ordinary use, and has the greatest variety of inflection for person and number.

The subjunctive is gone almost wholly out of use in the preterit tense; no verb except **be** has a preterit subjunctive different from the indicative: thus,

I was, **if I were;**

and even in the present tense, a difference, except in the same verb **be,** is found only in the second and third persons singular: thus,

thou lovest, **if thou love;**
he loves, **if he love;**
I am, etc., **if we** or **you** or **they be.**

but

I love, and **if I love.**

Hence the subjunctive, as a separate mode, is almost lost and out of mind in our language; in its place we put either the indicative, or some of the modal phrases, compound forms made with auxiliaries, which will be described later (**279** etc.).

The imperative has but a single form, which is used indifferently as singular and as plural. Its subject, **thou,** or **you** or **ye,** may be expressed, coming after the verb; but it is more usually omitted: thus,

go or **go thou,** **go** or **go you** or **ye.**

235. These are all the forms of inflection which the verb has in English.

But there are certain derivative words, made from almost every verb in the language, which are so important, and so much used, and used in such ways, that they are always given along with the inflectional forms, as part of the conjugation of the verb, although they are not verbs at all, because they do not really assert anything; they are only

nouns and adjectives. They are called INFINITIVES and PARTICIPLES.

236. The INFINITIVE is a verbal noun, expressing in noun-form the action or condition which the verb asserts.

The PARTICIPLE is in like manner a verbal adjective.

Thus, to say

he gives

is to declare some one the doer of a certain action; this action itself is expressed by

giving or **to give;**

which may then, like any other noun expressing an action, be made the subject or object of a verb: thus,

giving is better than receiving;
to give is better than to receive;
he likes giving;
he likes to give.

And the person who gives is described as a **giving** person, and what he gives is a **given** thing.

The same person may be described as a **giver**, and what he gives as a **gift**; and these words **giver** and **gift** are likewise derivatives from **give**, just as **giving** and **given** are; and words like **giver** are made from a very large part of the verbs of our language. But, besides that the infinitives and participles are formed from every verb in the language almost without exception, for certain regular and definable uses, they also have uses which are peculiar, like those which verbs have, and different from those of any other nouns and adjectives. They take the same adjuncts or limiting words that the verbs from which they come take; they are followed by objects, direct and indirect; and the infinitives are qualified by adverbs. Thus, as we say

I give him gladly my forgiveness

(where **forgiveness** is the direct and **him** the indirect object of **give**, and **gladly** is an adverb qualifying it), so we also say

to give him willingly my forgiveness,

and

giving him willingly my forgiveness;

while, if we used an ordinary noun, like **giver** or **gift**, we should have to say, for example,

a gift to him, with willingness, of my forgiveness.

237. There are two infinitives.

Infinitive means something like 'unlimited, indefinite,' because the general idea of action or condition in these words is not limited to a particular number or person, as in the ordinary verbal forms.

One is the same with the ***root*** (**87**) of the verb, or the simplest verbal form (the same with the imperative, and, except in **be**, with the first person present): thus,

go, see, walk, love, give.

It often has the preposition **to** put before it as its SIGN: thus,

to go, to see, to walk, to love, to give.

The rules as to the presence or absence of the sign **to** will be given in another place (see **440-1**).

The other infinitive is made by the ending **ing**: thus,

going, seeing, walking, loving, giving.

The first is called simply the INFINITIVE, or the ROOT-INFINITIVE; the second is known as the INFINITIVE IN **ing**, or as the PARTICIPIAL INFINITIVE (because it always has the same form as the present participle).

The infinitive in **ing** is by some called the "gerund."

238. There are also two participles.

Participle means 'participating, sharing,' because these words, while really adjectives, share also in the character of verbs.

One ends in **ing**, and is called the PRESENT PARTICIPLE, because it more often denotes present action: thus,

going, seeing, walking, loving, giving.

The other has a variety of endings — **d**, or **t**, or **n**, or none at all — and is called the PAST PARTICIPLE, or the PASSIVE PARTICIPLE, because it usually belongs to past time, or denotes completed action, or condition as the result of

suffering or enduring (*passive* means 'enduring') the action expressed by the verb: thus,

gone, seen, walked, loved, taught, given.

A person **gone** is one who has already performed the act of **going**; anything **seen** or **given** either is undergoing or has undergone the act of **seeing** or **giving**, as performed by some one: we can say, some one **saw** it, or **gave** it — and so on.

CONJUGATIONS.

239. If we start from the simplest form of the verb, the base of verbal inflection or the verbal root (**87**), there are in English (as in the other languages most nearly related with English) two principal ways of making from it the preterit tense and the past participle. And, according as they follow the one or the other of these ways, English verbs are divided into two great classes, which are called CONJUGATIONS, because unlike one another in their mode of inflection or conjugation.

240. The one class or conjugation regularly forms its preterit and participle, both alike, by the addition of **ed** or **d** to the root of the verb: thus,

love, loved, loved;
wish, wished, wished.

This is called the NEW conjugation (also often the WEAK, or sometimes the REGULAR conjugation).

The other class regularly forms its preterit by a change in the vowel of the root, without any added ending, and its participle by adding **en** or **n**; and the vowel of the participle is either the same with that of the root, or the same with that of the preterit, or else different from both: thus,

give, gave, given; **bite, bit, bitten;**
fly, flew, flown.

This is called the OLD conjugation (also the STRONG, or the IRREGULAR conjugation).

241. Below are given, by way of model, all the forms of two regular verbs, one from each conjugation.

New Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

Pers.	Sing.	Pl.
1.	I **love**	we **love**
2.	thou **lovest**	you (ye) **love**
3.	he **loves** (**loveth**)	they **love**

Preterit Tense.

1.	I **loved**	we **loved**
2.	thou **lovedst**	you (ye) **loved**
3.	he **loved**	they **loved**

Old Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present Tense.

	Sing.	Pl.
1.	I **give**	we **give**
2.	thou **givest**	you (ye) **give**
3.	he **gives** (**giveth**)	they **give**

Preterit Tense.

1.	I **gave**	we **gave**
2.	thou **gavest**	you (ye) **gave**
3.	he **gave**	they **gave**

New Conjugation.	**Old Conjugation.**
SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.	
Present Tense.	
(if) I, thou, he, etc. **love**	(if) I, thou, he, etc. **give**
Preterit Tense.	
(if) I, thou, he, etc. **loved**	(if) I, thou, he, etc. **gave**
IMPERATIVE MODE.	
2. **love**	**give**
INFINITIVE.	
love or **to love**	**give** or **to give**
PRESENT PARTICIPLE AND PARTICIPIAL INFINITIVE.	
loving	**giving**
PAST PARTICIPLE.	
loved	**given**

It will be noticed that the regular verbs of the New conjugation thus have only six actually different forms : namely,

love, lovest, loves (or loveth), loved, lovedst, loving;

while the regular verbs of the Old conjugation have seven : namely,

give, givest, gives (or giveth), gave, gavest, giving, given.

242. In both conjugations, the infinitive, the imperative, and the present tense (in the subjunctive, and the plural and first sing. of the indicative) are the same with one another, and with that simplest form of the verb which we call the root. And the present participle and participial infinitive differ from them only by adding **ing.** We need, therefore, to know only the infinitive, the preterit, and the past participle, in order to understand the whole inflection of any verb. Hence these three are called the PRINCIPAL PARTS of the verb, and, in describing any verb, they are given. Thus,

love, loved, loved;	**give, gave, given;**
teach, taught, taught;	**sing, sang, sung;**
go, went, gone;	**be, was, been.**

243. As regards the inflection of the tenses, the subjunctive tenses have but one form for all persons and both numbers.

In the indicative, the second person singular adds **st** or **est** in both tenses ; and the addition generally makes another syllable —always, if the first person has only one syllable, or ends in a sibilant or hissing sound (**123** c) : thus,

lovest, lovedst, confessest, cherishest.

The third person singular is like the first in the preterit, but in the present adds **s** or **es**, which does not make another syllable except after a sibilant sound. Thus,

loves, gives, bids, picks, hopes;

but

confesses, fixes, chooses, cherishes, pitches, judges.

The added **s** is pronounced as **s** or as **z** according to the same rules which were given above (**123**) for the **s** of the plural of nouns.

The third person singular present has a second form, made by the ending **th** or **eth**, almost always making an additional syllable. Thus,

loveth, giveth, goeth, hopeth, fixeth;

but **disableth.**

This is an old-English form, now used almost only in solemn style and in poetry.

We now take up the two conjugations separately, especially in order to notice their irregularities.

NEW CONJUGATION.

244. The regular verbs of the New conjugation, as we have seen, form their preterit and their past participle alike, by adding **ed** or **d** to the root or infinitive. Thus,

looked, begged, hoped, robbed, raised, wished, waited, united, loaded, degraded.

As these examples show, the added ending makes an additional syllable only when the root ends with a **t**-sound or a **d**-sound, after which the **d** of the ending could not otherwise be distinctly heard.

Moreover, the added **d** is sounded like a **t**, if the root ends in the sounds of **k**, **p**, **th** as in **thin**, **f**, **s** (including **x**), and **sh** (including **ch**): thus,

baked, piqued, hoped, betrothed, fifed, paragraphed, laughed, chased, raced, vexed, wished, hatched.

In many words of this class, **t** was formerly often written instead of **d**, and some people are beginning to write it again now.

In solemn styles of reading and speaking, the **ed** is sometimes sounded as a separate syllable after all roots; and then, of course, the **d** has its proper **d**-sound.

245. These are the regular methods. But a great many verbs of this conjugation are more or less irregular, some (**252**) even to such a degree and in such ways that it might seem doubtful whether they ought not to be classed with verbs of the Old conjugation.

IRREGULARITIES.

246. In some verbs in which the **d** is pronounced like a **t**, either **ed** or **t** is allowed (especially in the participle) to be written: thus,

dress, dressed or **drest**; **bless, blessed** or **blest**;
pass, passed or **past.**

As we saw above (**244**), some are extending this class beyond what has been usual hitherto.

247. In some verbs, after a final **n** or **l** sound in the root, either a regular form in **ed** (pronounced as **d**) or an irregular in **t** is allowed: thus

learn, learned or **learnt**; **spoil, spoiled** or **spoilt.**

And in like manner from **burn**, **pen** (meaning 'confine'), **smell**, **dwell**, **spell**, **spill**.

248. In some verbs, of which the root ends in **d** after **l** or **n** or **r**, either the regular form with **ed** added, or an irregular, with the final **d** simply changed to **t**, is allowed: thus,

build, builded or **built**; **rend, rended** or **rent**;
gird, girded or **girt**.

And the same is the case with **gild**, **bend**.

But **lend**, **send**, **spend** have the irregular form only: thus,

send, sent.

249. In a yet larger number of verbs, the vowel of the root is shortened in pronunciation, and **t** is added as ending: thus,

feel, felt; **mean, meant**; **keep, kept**.

This method is followed also by **deal**, **creep**, **sleep**, **sweep**, **weep**. And **kneel**, **leap**, **lean**, **dream** have either the regular or the irregular form: thus,

kneel, kneeled or **knelt**; **dream, dreamed** or **dreamt**.

250. A few which have the same irregularity change also a final **v** or **z** sound of the root to **f** or **s**, respectively: thus,

leave, left; **lose, lost**.

So also with **cleave** ('split': compare **263**), **reave** (almost obsolete), and **bereave**; but the last has either **bereaved** or **bereft**.

Cleave meaning 'adhere' is regular, but **clave** is sometimes found used as its preterit.

251. A few show a similar change of a final vowel, adding the sign **d**: thus,

flee, fled; **say, said**; **shoe, shod**.

Heard from **hear** is a case by itself, but has most likeness to these last classes.

252. A number of verbs ending in **t** or **d** after a long vowel shorten the vowel in the preterit and participle, but take no added ending: thus,

feed, fed; **shoot, shot**; **lead, led**.

So also with **bleed**, **breed**, **speed**, **read**, **meet**; **light** forms **lighted** or **lit**.

253. And quite a number, ending in **t** or **d**, generally after a short vowel, make no change at all, but form the preterit and participle like the present: they are

burst	**hit**	**put**	**shed**	**spit**	**thrust**
cast	**hurt**	**quit**	**shred**	**split**	**wet**
cost	**knit**	**rid**	**shut**	**spread**	**whet**
cut	**let**	**set**	**slit**	**sweat**	

A few of these, however, allow also the regular form in **ed**: namely **knit**, **quit**, **sweat**, **wet**, **whet**. And **spit** formerly had sometimes the preterit **spat**.

254. A certain class, ending formerly in a **k** or **g** sound, change the vowel and final consonants into the sound **aught**: thus,

beseech, besought; buy, bought; bring, brought.

And so also **seek, catch, teach, think**; **work** has either **worked** or **wrought**.

255. Scattered irregularities are the following:

Sell and **tell** form **sold** and **told**.

Have, make, and **clothe** are shortened by loss of the final consonant of the root: thus,

had, made, clad (or **clothed**).

Dare is either regular, or forms the anomalous preterit (not participle) **durst**.

256. The principal parts being as here stated, the tense-inflection is almost always regular, according to the rules already given (**243**).

But **have** is irregular in the present singular, forming

I **have,** thou **hast,** he **has.**

Need has in the third singular present either **needs** or **need**. **Dare** has the same irregularity; and its irregular preterit **durst** does not take **st** in the second person singular.

OLD CONJUGATION.

257. The characteristics of verbs of the Old conjugation, as we have seen, are these: that they change the vowel of the root, either in the preterit or in the past participle or in both; that they take no added ending in the preterit; and that the ending of the participle, if it have any, is **n**.

258. The regular verbs of this conjugation fall into a number of distinct classes; but the grounds of the division are only to be seen in the older forms of English, and in some of the other languages related to English, and the limits of the classes have been very much confused by irregular changes.

259. One cause of the irregularities in our present English has been the tendency to change the vowel either of the preterit or of the participle, so as to make these two forms agree with each other.

Moreover, the **en** or **n** which was formerly the constant ending of the past participle is now entirely lost in many verbs, and may be either left off or retained in others.

Some verbs which were formerly of the Old conjugation now either sometimes or always make a part of their forms according to the New. Not a few, indeed, have been transferred to the New altogether.

260. Hence, in classifying the verbs of the Old conjugation, we do not try to distinguish the irregular from the regular ones, and merely group together those which, as we use them now, are on the whole most alike in their inflection.

261. A class of verbs form their present, preterit, and participle thus:

sing, sang, sung; begin, began, begun.

Such are **ring, sling, spring, swim,** and **stink**; further, **drink, shrink, sink,** which have for participles also **drunken, shrunken, sunken** (though these are now used chiefly as adjectives). All these verbs, however, sometimes form their preterit like the participle, as **sung, swum, sunk.** Of **spin,** the old preterit **span** instead of **spun** is now out of use, and we say only

spin, spun, spun.

And the same is the case with **cling, fling, sting, string, swing, wring, slink,** and **win** (**won**).

In **run, ran, run,** the present is like the participle.

262. The verbs **bind, find, grind, wind** are conjugated thus:

bind, bound, bound; find, found, found.

With them nearly agrees

fight, fought, fought.

Fraught, from **freight,** is now used only as adjective.

263. The principal parts of **speak** are

speak, spoke (anciently **spake**), **spoken.**

And like it are conjugated **break, bear, swear, wear, tear,** all of them having an old preterit with the vowel **a**, now out of use. **Bear** has two forms of the participle, **borne** and **born,** of somewhat different meaning. **Cleave** ('split') is like these, or of the New conjugation (**250**).

Nearly like these are **steal, weave, tread,** but with a preterit in **o** only: thus,

steal, stole, stolen.

Heave and **shear,** which are usually of the New conjugation, have also, the one an Old preterit, **hove,** the other an Old participle, **shorn.** **Get** (with **beget** and **forget**) has **got** (anciently **gat**) and **gotten** or **got.**

264. A few verbs follow, quite irregularly, the model of **give (241).**

Those most like it are

bid, bade (sometimes **bid**), **bidden**; **eat, ate** (or **eat**), **eaten**; **see, saw, seen.**

More irregular are

beat, beat, beaten; **lie, lay, lain**; **sit, sat, sat.**

265. In the same manner as

take, took, taken

are conjugated **shake** and **forsake.**

And

draw, drew, drawn, slay, slew, slain,

have a right to be put in one class with them; also **stand**, though it now forms its participle like its preterit, **stood.**

Wake and **awake** either follow the New conjugation throughout, or make the preterits **woke** and **awoke.** **Stave**, in like manner, sometimes forms the preterit **stove**, and of **wax** the participle **waxen**, instead of **waxed**, is sometimes met with.

266. In the same manner as

ride, rode, ridden, rise, rose, risen,

are conjugated also **stride, smite, write, drive, strive**, and **thrive**; but the last is also of the New conjugation.

Shine and **abide**, which should belong to the same class, now form the participle like the preterit: namely, **shone** and **abode**; and **shine** is sometimes of the New conjugation.

267. The verbs **bite, chide, hide** (formerly of the New conjugation), **slide** are conjugated thus:

bite, bit, bitten or **bit.**

268. The verb

choose, chose, chosen,

is a specimen of a class that has become almost extinct.

With it we may put

freeze, froze, frozen; **seethe, sod, sodden**;

but **seethe** is of rare use, and more usually follows the New conjugation.

269. The verbs **blow, grow, know, throw** are conjugated thus:

grow, grew, grown.

And we may class with them

fly, flew, flown.

Sow, strow or **strew**, and **show** are throughout of the New conjugation, or may make the participles **sown, strown** or **strewn**, and **shown. Crow** is of the New conjugation, or may make the preterit **crew.**

270. The two verbs

fall, fell, fallen,

and

hold, held, holden (rare) or **held,**

really form one class together, however unlike they may seem.

271. We may class together

dig, dug, dug (or by New conjugation);
stick, stuck, stuck;
strike, struck, struck (or **stricken**);
hang, hung, hung.

272. We have finally to notice three or four quite unclassifiable verbs: namely,

come, came, come; go, went, gone; do, did, done.

Went is properly the preterit of **wend** (like **sent** from **send**), which now, as a separate verb, has the regular preterit **wended. Did**, of all our preterits, preserves the plainest relic of the reduplication which formerly made all our Old preterits.

Wit, with its present **wot** and preterit **wist** (it has no participle), is now nearly out of use. **Quoth** is a relic (first and third persons singular preterit) of a verb formerly much used, but now wellnigh obsolete.

273. Be is made up of parts coming from several different roots, and is so irregular as to require to be inflected here in full:

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

be, was, been.

	INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
		Present.		
1.	**am**	**are**	**be**	**be**
2.	**art**	**are**	**be (beest)**	**be**
3.	**is**	**are**	**be**	**be**
		Preterit.		
1.	**was**	**were**	**were**	**were**
2.	**wast (wert)**	**were**	**wert, were**	**were**
3.	**was**	**were**	**were**	**were**

IMPERATIVE.

be

INFINITIVES. and PARTICIPLES.

be or **to be, being** **being, been.**

Be etc. were formerly, and are sometimes still, used for indicative as well as subjunctive.

274. The forms of verbs of the Old conjugation, as here given, are those which the best present use approves. But in all the three respects mentioned in **259** — namely, dropping or retaining the **en** of the participle; making the vowels of the preterit and participle like one another; and mixing forms of the New and Old conjugations — there has been much irregularity, especially among the older writers of the language; and some of this remains, particularly in poetic use.

275. Where a double form of the participle is in use, one with the ending **en** and the other without, the former (with **en**) is apt to be preferred when the participle has the value of an ordinary adjective: thus,

a drunken man; a sunken ship; a hidden spring; a stricken heart; cloven hoofs; forgotten promises.

Some, like **drunken**, are almost limited nowadays to this adjective use. And there are a number of words in **en**, now used only as adjectives, as the verbs of which they are really the participles form their participles at present in another manner. Such are

molten, shapen, graven, shaven, laden, riven, rotten, swollen, hewn, mown, sawn, bounden.

OTHER IRREGULAR VERBS.

276. There is a small class of irregular verbs, mostly used (see below, **291**) along with the infinitives of other verbs, to form verb-phrases or "compound tenses," and having neither infinitives nor participles of their own. They are

can, may, shall, and **will; must,** and **ought.**

277. The first four, though now having the value of presents only, are originally preterits of the Old conjugation; and hence, like other preterits, they have the third person singular (as well as all the plural persons) like the first. Thus, for example:

1.	I **can,**	we **can,**
2.	thou **canst,**	you (ye) **can,**
3.	he **can,**	they **can.**

May has the regular form **mayest** in the second person singular; but **shall** and **will** have **shalt** and **wilt** (like **art** and **wert, 273**).

These verbs have preterits, made according to the New conjugation, but irregular: namely,

could, might, should, and **would.**

They are inflected regularly, taking **est** or **st** in the second person singular.

278. Must and **ought** are originally preterits of the New conjugation (**ought** from **owe**), though now used chiefly as presents; they have no corresponding preterits. **Ought** forms **oughtest** in the second person singular; **must** is invariable: **thou must,** like **he must.**

The old present of **must,** namely **mote,** is now and then still met with in poetry.

COMPOUND VERBAL FORMS: VERB-PHRASES.

279. We called (**232**) **I love** or **I give** a ***present tense,*** and **I loved** or **I gave** a ***past*** or ***preterit tense,*** because these two forms of the verb express action in two different *times,* the one present and the other past.

Now there are other and less simple ways of expressing nearly the same difference of time. Instead, for example, of

I give and **I gave,**

we may say

I do give and **I did give.**

The difference between the two expressions is usually that **I do give,** for example, is more emphatic, a more positive assertion, than **I give.** But in asking a question, it has come to be usual in our language to say

do I give? and **did I give?**

instead of

give I? and **gave I?**

And also along with **not,** we very rarely say nowadays (as people did in older English)

I give not, and **I gave not;**

but rather,

I do not give, and **I did not give.**

280. In such phrases as **I do give**, the **give** is not the bare root of the verb, but (as the older English and the other related languages show) the infinitive without **to**. Just so we say, without using **to**,

I see him give, I heard him speak;

but, with **to**,

I wish him to give, I expected him to speak.

The **do** and **did** are the present and preterit of **do** (**272**). These are the real verbs in the little phrases **I do give** and **I did give**; and the infinitive or verbal noun (**236**) **give** is their object: **I do give**, for example, strictly means '**I do** or **perform an act of giving.**' We might properly enough always analyze and parse the phrase, and any other similar one, in this manner. But the phrase is, as we have seen, a kind of substitute for the present tense of the verb **give**, and the **do** is used along with the infinitive of the verb to *help* in making it; and such substitutes are formed from all the verbs in the language, and are used in making sentences just as simple verbal tenses are used. Accordingly, we find it convenient not to analyze them, but treat them as simple tenses. We call the phrases

I do give and **I did give**

the EMPHATIC present and preterit of the verb **give.** And the verb **do**, which is put along with the infinitive **give** to help in making the emphatic tenses, we call an AUXILIARY or 'helping' verb.

A PHRASE is a combination of two or more words (not including a subject and predicate), having in a sentence the office or value of a single part of speech, and capable of being regarded and parsed as such. We shall have hereafter to notice phrases that are in the same way the equivalents of adjectives, adverbs, and so on.

281. Again, we form yet another kind of present and preterit, namely

I am giving and **I was giving,**

by using the present and preterit of **be** (**273**) as ***auxiliary,*** and putting along with it the present participle **giving.**

Here the participle has the value of a predicate adjective (see below, **351**), qualifying the subject of the auxiliary verb, just as the adjectives **generous** and **liberal** qualify **I** in

I am generous; I was liberal.

We might always analyze the phrases in this way in describing the sentence; but it is, as before, convenient to treat them as if they were simple tenses. And because in them the action is thought of more distinctly as continuing, lasting, being in *progress*, we call these compound tenses the CONTINUOUS or PROGRESSIVE present and preterit.

282. Again, our simple verbal forms have a distinction of tense only for the difference of time present and time past. If we want to speak of anything as to be done in time to come, we use as auxiliaries the present tenses of the irregular verbs **shall** and **will** (**276-7**), putting along with them the infinitive of the verb expressing the action. Thus,

I shall give; he will go.

This, then, as it signifies future action or condition, we call a FUTURE tense.

In these phrases, again (as in **I do give**), the infinitive is the object of the auxiliary considered as an independent verb. **Shall** means originally 'owe, be under obligation'; and **will** means 'wish, resolve, determine.' The phrases really signify, then,

I owe, am bound or **obligated to, the act of giving;**

and

I intend, am determined on, giving.

283. Out of this difference in the original meaning of the auxiliary has grown a difference between the form of the future expression in the first person on the one hand, and the second and third persons on the other hand. To denote simply something that is going to take place, we ordinarily use **shall** in the first person, and **will** in the others: thus,

1.	**I shall go,**	**we shall go,**
2.	**thou wilt go,**	**you will go,**
3.	**he will go,**	**they will go.**

284. To use **will** in the first person implies rather an assent or promise: thus,

I will go (if it is asked of me);

or, when emphatic, a determination: thus,

I will go! (whatever may oppose).

To use **shall** in the second and third person implies rather a promise: thus,

you shall have it; **he shall go, rely on me for that;**

and, when emphatic, a determination on the part of the speaker: thus,

you shall go; I exact it of you;
he shall go, in spite of him and of you.

285. But in asking a question, we are accustomed to use **shall** or **will** according as the one or the other is to be used in reply. Thus, we say

shall you go? shall he go?

if we expect the reply, **I** (or **he**) **shall** (or **shall not**) **go**; but

will you go? will he go?

if we expect **I** (or **he**) **will** (or **will not**) **go.**

In like manner, in reporting the statement or opinion of another: thus, we say

you say you shall go, **he thinks he shall find it,**

if we imply that the persons referred to would themselves say

I shall go, **I shall find it.**

286. These are only the main outlines of the difference between **shall** and **will.** To define it completely would take a great deal of room; and some of the distinctions are very delicate and difficult. The people of Ireland and Scotland and of a part of the United States have long been inaccurate in their use of the two auxiliaries, putting **will** often where the cultivated and approved idiom requires **shall**: thus,

I will be able to go to-morrow;
we will have to do as you say;

and the inaccuracy has recently been greatly increasing in the United States.

287. The preterits of the same auxiliaries, **should** and **would,** form, with the infinitive, phrases which are especially used to express a *conditional* assertion: that is, one that depends on a condition. Thus,

I should go (if I could get away);
he would give (if he had the means).

These, therefore, are called CONDITIONAL forms.

Often, also, they are used in expressing the condition itself: thus,

if he should come, you would see him.

The difference between **should** and **would** is in general the same as that between **shall** and **will**, and they are in like manner confused by inaccurate speakers: thus,

I would try in vain to express myself;
he ought to have known that we would be ruined.

But in the expression of a condition (as in the example above), **should** is used with all persons. Even **shall** is, much less often, used in the same way: thus,

if he shall come, it will be well.

Should has sometimes its more independent meaning of 'ought,' as **will** and **would** have that of 'be determined': thus,

he should go, by all means, but he will not;
he would go, I could not stop him.

288. Yet again, by using the verb **have** as auxiliary, in its present and preterit tenses, **have** and **had**, and putting with them the past participle, **given, gone**, and the like, we form two other so-called tenses: namely,

I have given, and **I had given.**

Both these tenses show past action, like the simple preterit. But as **I have given** seems to mark the act of giving especially as completed, finished, done with at present, we call it a PERFECT tense (*perfect* here means 'complete').

And as **I had given** marks the act as completed already at some stated time in the past — thus, for example,

I had given it away before you came —

we call it a PAST PERFECT, or (what is meant for the same thing) a PLUPERFECT tense.

289. Of all the verb-phrases used as compound tenses, those with **have** for their auxiliary are farthest removed from their original meaning, and therefore hardest to analyze and explain. They began to be made from transitive (**223**) verbs, followed by an object, which object was qualified by the participle in the way of an objective predicate (see below, **369**): for example,

I have my head lifted; **I have the letter written.**

Then such phrases, which literally expressed only the result of a past action, came to be understood as expressions for the action itself, getting the same meaning as our

I have lifted my head; **I have written the letter.**

And then, **have** coming to seem a mere auxiliary of past time, as **shall** and **will** of future, all verbs, of every kind, finally made their past tenses with it. For a long time, however, **am** and **was** continued to be used instead as auxiliary for some of the intransitive verbs (as still used, for example, in German and French); and remains of this use are to be seen in occasional phrases like

he is come, they are arrived, he was gone before you drove up.

290. The perfect, pluperfect, and future verb-phrases, or compound verbal forms, are analogous in use with the ***tenses*** of the simple verb; they add principally a difference of *time* to the meaning of the verbal root. But the conditional has more the character of a ***mode;*** its difference from the future resembles that of the subjunctive from the indicative.

Indeed, the conditional is often used where we might also use the preterit subjunctive: thus, instead of

if I should be so unlucky, though he should slay me, that would certainly be better,

we may also say,

if I were so unlucky, though he slay me, that were certainly better.

291. And other verb-phrases, of a modal meaning, are made with the auxiliary verbs **may, can, must,** and **ought.**

Thus, the phrases

I may give, I can give,

as they express especially the possibility of the action, are called POTENTIAL forms (*potential* means 'having power').

And

I might give, I could give,

which are a kind of conditional, of a somewhat different value from the other, are called POTENTIAL PAST, being formed with the past instead of the present tense of the same auxiliaries.

And with **must** and **ought (to)** we make forms which may be called OBLIGATIVE, 'implying obligation': thus,

I must give, I ought to give.

Not all the combinations of these verbs with an infinitive are properly to be regarded as verb-phrases. Sometimes they have as independent a meaning and character as other verbs which have an infinitive dependent on them.

292. As with the present and preterit of **have** we made, adding the past participle of the verb, a perfect and a pluperfect

tense, so, with the future, the conditional, and so on, of **have**, we form a future perfect, a conditional perfect, and so on, through the whole series of compound forms: thus,

I shall or **will have given;**
I should or **would have given;**
I may or **can have given**, etc., etc.

293. Once more, we may make continuous or ***progressive*** forms (**281**) for the entire series, by putting in each case the corresponding tense of the verb **be** before the present participle: thus,

I have been giving; **I had been giving;**
I shall be giving; **I might be giving;**
I must or **ought to have been giving;**

and so on with the rest.

But the ***emphatic*** forms (**280**), with **do** as auxiliary, are made only from the present and preterit, the simple tenses, and not from any of the compound tenses, whether in assertion or in question and negation. For example, though we are allowed to say either

I do have or **I have,** **does he have?** or **has he?**
they did not have, or **they had not,**

when **have** is an independent verb, we say only

I have given, **has he given?** **they had not given,**

when it is an auxiliary — and so with all the other auxiliaries.

In fact, the emphatic form of **be** (but compare **474**), **will**, **shall**, **may**, **can**, **must**, and **ought** is not admitted, even in the more independent uses of these verbs.

294. The infinitives and participles bear their share in this expansion of the simple forms of the verb into a scheme of verb-phrases.

Thus, along with the simple infinitive,

give or **to give,**

we have the PERFECT INFINITIVE,

have given or **to have given;**

and both of these have their progressive forms: namely,

be giving or **to be giving;**
have been giving or **to have been giving.**

With the present participle, **giving**, we make a PERFECT PARTICIPLE,

having given,

with its progressive form corresponding,

having been giving;

and, as elsewhere, the same forms serve the uses also of participial infinitive.

Finally, the past or passive participle, **given**, has its progressive form,

being given;

and from it is also made a PERFECT PASSIVE PARTICIPLE (without progressive form),

having been given,

which is a part, rather, of the passive conjugation (**300**).

295. If we put all these forms together into one scheme, it will be as below.

The original and simple forms of the verb are here put in SMALL CAPITALS, to distinguish them amid the crowd. For brevity's sake, the subjunctive of the first four tenses (formed for perfect and pluperfect with the subjunctive of the auxiliary **have**: for example, **if he have given**) is omitted. Only the first person singular of each tense is set down.

ROOT,
GIVE.

PRINCIPAL PARTS,
GIVE, GAVE, GIVEN.

Simple.	Emphatic.	Progressive.
	Present.	
GIVE	**do give**	**am giving**
	Preterit.	
GAVE	**did give**	**was giving**
	Perfect.	
have given		**have been giving**
	Pluperfect.	
had given		**had been giving**
	Future.	
shall or **will give**		**shall** or **will be giving**

Future Perfect.

Simple.	Progressive.
shall or will have given	shall or will have been giving

Conditional.

should or would give	should or would be giving

Conditional Perfect.

should or would have given	should or would have been giving

Potential.

may or can give	may or can be giving

Potential Past.

might or could give	might or could be giving

Potential Perfect.

may or can have given	may or can have been giving

Potential Pluperfect.

might or could have given	might or could have been giving

Obligative.

must or ought to give	must or ought to be giving

Obligative Perfect.

must or ought to have given	must or ought to have been giving

Imperative.

Simple.	Emphatic.	Progressive.
GIVE	do give	be giving

Infinitive.

(to) GIVE	(to) be giving

Infinitive Perfect.

(to) have given	(to) have been giving

Present Participle and Participial Infinitive.

GIVING

Perfect Participle and Participial Infinitive.

having given	having been giving

Past Participle.

GIVEN	being given

296. It is impossible to draw any absolute line between such verb-phrases as have been set forth and named above and those yet looser and more accidental combinations into which words enter in sentences, in order to limit and define an action in still other ways, as regards time and manner.

Thus, one might prefer to class as futures phrases like these :

I am going to give; I am about to give;
I am on the point of giving.

There is no very marked difference between

I may or **can give,**

and

I am allowed to give; I am able to give;
it is in my power to give.

Nor, again, between

I must or **ought to give,**

and

I am to give; I have to give;
I am compelled to give; it is my duty to give.

But we select, to make up a kind of complete scheme of conjugation, those phrases which are on the whole the most frequent and the most regular ; those in which the real verbal form has most distinctly the character of an auxiliary or helper only ; and finally, those which most nearly correspond to the real modes and tenses of the verbs of other languages. The scholar must be careful not to confound them with the true verbal forms : they are, after all, nothing but phrases, composed of a real verbal form (the "auxiliary") and its limiting adjuncts ; combinations of independent words, each of which can be parsed separately, as a member of the sentence. It is only as a matter of practical convenience, to save time and needless repetition, that we treat them as compound forms of the verb, and name and parse them in the same way as the simple forms.

There is one more set of verb-phrases, corresponding to the true verbal forms of many other languages, yet remaining to be described.

PASSIVE VERB-PHRASES.

297. We called above (**238**) the past participle also the "passive" participle, because it usually marks the thing described by it as 'suffering,' or 'enduring,' or being the object of, the action defined by the verb.

Thus, a **beaten** dog is one that some one has been beating ; a **loved** person is one regarded with love ; a lamp is **lighted** if some one has lighted it ; and so on.

298. Now, by putting this passive participle along with all the various forms, simple and compound, of the verb **be,**

we make a set of verb-phrases which are usually called the PASSIVE CONJUGATION of the verb, because by means of them we take what is the object of any verbal form in the ordinary conjugation, and turn it into a subject, representing it as enduring or suffering the action expressed by that verbal form.

Thus, to

the dog bit him,

the corresponding passive is

he was bitten by the dog,

the object **him** being turned into the subject **he**; to

I shall see them,

the passive is

they will be seen by me;

to

you might have given me the book,

the passive is

the book might have been given me by you;

and so on.

299. To the passive tenses there is no *emphatic* form, made with **do**, since (as was pointed out above, **293**) the auxiliary of the passive, **be**, never makes an emphatic tense-form : we say only

I am struck; am I struck? I am not struck;

and so on : not **do I be struck?** etc.

But in recent English (probably since the latter part of the last century) there have been coming into common use *progressive* forms for the two simplest tenses, present and preterit ; forms made with the progressive instead of the simple form of the past or passive participle. Examples are

the house is being built; the book was being printed;
the dinner was being eaten.

These are the corresponding passives to the progressive expressions

they are building the house; they were printing the book;
they were eating the dinner;

just as

the house is built, the book was printed, the dinner was eaten,

correspond to

they build the house; they printed the book; they ate the dinner.

These progressive passive forms are still regarded by some as bad English, and carefully avoided; but they are also freely used even by writers of the first class, especially in England (less generally in America).

300. The synopsis of the passive conjugation is then as follows (omitting the names of the tenses):

Simple.	Progressive.
am loved	**am being loved**
was loved	**was being loved**
have been loved	
had been loved	
shall or **will be loved**	
shall or **will have been loved**	
should or **would be loved**	
should or **would have been loved**	
may or **can be loved**	
may or **can have been loved**	
might or **could be loved**	
might or **could have been loved**	
must or **ought to be loved**	
must or **ought to have been loved**	
be loved	
(to) **be loved**	
(to) **have been loved**	
LOVED	**being loved**
having been loved.	

The past participle, as being in itself ***passive,*** is the one simple form in the whole passive conjugation; and, not having **be** with it as passive auxiliary, is able to take it as progressive sign. And **being loved** and **having been loved** are not only participles, but also (like the other phrases formed with the verbal word ending in **ing** as auxiliary) passive participial infinitive phrases, present and perfect.

301. In distinction from the passive conjugation, the other and simpler one is often called the ACTIVE; and in languages which have real verbal forms for both uses, the two sets are styled respectively the ACTIVE VOICE and the PASSIVE VOICE of the verb.

302. The series of forms of the auxiliary **be**, it will be noticed, that make the passive tenses, are the same that make the progressive active tenses; but they have with them the passive participle, **given** or **loved**, which marks a thing as *acted on*, instead of the active, **giving** or **loving**, which marks a thing as itself *acting*. In both cases alike, the participle has the real value of a predicate adjective (**351**), describing or qualifying the subject.

But by no means every case where a past participle is combined with the verb **be** is to be regarded as a passive phrase. Often the participle has the value of a predicate adjective merely, and is to be treated like any other adjective. Thus, in

he is fatigued,

fatigued has as pure an adjective use as **weary** in

he is weary;

also in

he was fatigued in consequence of over-exertion.

But if we say

he was fatigued by his exertions,

was fatigued is passive, because the sentence is the same as

his exertions fatigued him,

cast into a passive form.

So in

they were invited, and came,

the phrase **were invited** is passive, because it signifies the receiving of the invitation, the enduring of the action of inviting; but in

they came, for they were invited,

it is not passive, because **invited** signifies rather the condition resulting from previous action; in active form it would be

for we had invited them.

And in like manner in other cases. According as the participle denotes actual enduring of action, or condition as the result of action, its combinations with **be** are or are not passive phrases.

303. Phrases of nearly the same meaning with the ordinary passive ones are made also with the verbs **become** and **get**: thus,

he became frightened; **he has got beaten;**

but it is not usual to reckon them as passive.

304. As a passive form is a phrase by which the object of an action expressed by a verb is turned into a subject, passives are regularly made only from transitive verbs (**223**), or those that take a direct object.

But this rule is not at all strictly observed in English. Objects of prepositions and indirect objects of verbs are also sometimes made into subjects of corresponding passive phrases.

305. We often separate a noun or pronoun that is really governed by a preposition (73) from that preposition, leaving the latter after the verb, as if it were rather an adverb qualifying the verb. Thus, instead of

I had already thought of that plan, the spoon with which he ate;

we say also

that plan I had already thought of; the spoon which he ate with.

So it comes to seem to us as if **thought of** and **ate with** were transitive verbs, and **plan** and **which** their direct objects; and we make the corresponding passives,

that plan had been already thought of by me;
the spoon which was eaten with by him.

This kind of passive is very common. Other examples are

she was talked about; the journey has been resolved on;
the sun must not be looked at; the carriage shall be sent for;
his decision is appealed from.

Even when a verb is transitive and has a direct object, besides being followed by a preposition with its object, the latter is sometimes made the subject of the corresponding passive phrase. Thus, the sentence

we take no notice of such fellows

may be made passive either as

no notice is taken by us of such fellows,

or as

such fellows are taken no notice of by us.

And for

they made much of him,

we have the double passive form,

much was made of him; he was made much of.

Again, in such phrases as

they gave this man to understand (so and so);
I told him to leave;

the words **this man** and **him** are strictly indirect objects, standing to the verb in the relation of a dative (139) and not an accusative. Yet we turn them sometimes (it is not allowed in the case of many verbs) into subjects of passive phrases: thus,

this man was given to understand; he was told by me to leave.

REFLEXIVE AND IMPERSONAL VERBS.

306. Such forms as

I wash myself, we had washed ourselves,
thou washedst thyself, you will wash yourselves (or **yourself**),
he has washed himself, they would wash themselves,

in which the object denotes the same person or thing as the subject, are sometimes called a REFLEXIVE conjugation, or the verb in them is said to be used REFLEXIVELY (the action being made to 'turn back' upon the actor, instead of "passing over," *transitively*, to a different object).

There is, however, no reason for taking any particular account of such forms in English.

307. Verbs used with the subject **it**, when it does not mean any definite actor, but only helps express that some action or process is going on (**163 b**), are called IMPERSONAL verbs, or are said to be used IMPERSONALLY. Examples are,

it rains; **it is fine weather;**
it grew dark fast; **it will fare ill with him.**

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER VIII.

ON VERBS.

Under the name "verb" we do not, here or anywhere else, include infinitives or participles, except as they are used along with auxiliaries to form verb-phrases. So far as they differ from other nouns and adjectives, they will be considered in a later chapter (XV.).

In describing a verb, we have first to see whether it is a simple verb or real verb-form, or a verb-phrase. If it is a verb-phrase, it must be taken apart into the auxiliary and the infinitive or participle which goes with this to make up the phrase. Then, if the auxiliary itself is a verb-phrase, it may, at the discretion of the teacher, be divided again — and so on, till only a simple verb-form remains.

The next question is, whether the verb is transitive or intransitive; then, of which conjugation; if of the New, whether regular or irregular; the principal parts are then to be given (with as much of the rest of the conjugation as the teacher shall think best). Then the mode and tense are to be stated, and the person and number; and the tense may be inflected.

If the verb is clearly derivative or compound, this should be pointed out.

The verb, in an assertive sentence, has but one construction, that of being the predicate of the sentence, of asserting something about a subject; we need, then, only to point out what the subject-nominative of the verb is, and that the verb agrees with its subject in number and person — being always of the third person if the subject is a noun.

Example of parsing verbs:

You gave us our orders; we listened, and we shall not forget them.

All the words except the verbs in these clauses may be passed over here, as the way of parsing them has been sufficiently explained already.

Gave is a verb, transitive (because it takes a direct object, showing *what* is given), of the Old conjugation: principal parts, **give, gave, given**; it is in the indicative mode, preterit tense, which is thus inflected: **I gave, thou gavest, he gave, we, you, they gave**; it is of the second person plural, to agree with its subject, the pronoun **you.**

Listened is an intransitive verb, of the New conjugation (because it forms its preterit and participle alike, by the addition of **ed**); it is made in the preterit indicative, and is of the first person plural, to agree with its subject, the pronoun **we.**

Shall forget is a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary **shall** and the infinitive **forget,** the two forming together the so-called "future tense" of the verb **forget. Forget** is a compound verb, made up of **get** and the prefix **for**; it is transitive, of the Old conjugation (principal parts, **forget, forgot, forgotten**); it is of the first person plural, to agree with its subject, the pronoun **we.**

One or two further examples will illustrate the way in which the analysis of an intricately compound verb-phrase may be, if desired, followed up to the end, and that in which the passive phrases of various kinds may be treated.

He must have been suffering intensely, since his leg was broken.

Must have been suffering is a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary **must have been** and the present participle **suffering,** the two composing together the so-called "progressive" form of the "obligative perfect" of the verb **suffer.** The auxiliary **must have been,** again, is also a verb-phrase, made up of the auxiliary **must have** and the past participle **been,** the two making together the so-called "obligative perfect" of the verb **be.** The auxiliary **must have,** once more,

is a verb-phrase, composed of the auxiliary **must** and the infinitive **have**, the two making together the so-called "obligative" of the verb **have**. **Must**, finally, is an irregular verb, having no other form than this, and principally used as auxiliary. **Suffer** is a regular verb etc. etc. (transitive, but here used intransitively).

Was broken is a passive verb-phrase, composed of the auxiliary **was** and the past participle **broken**, of the verb **break**. **Break** is etc. etc. It agrees in number and person with its subject **leg**, which would be the direct object of the verb in the corresponding active sentence, [**he**] **broke his leg**.

The turning of the passive phrase into the corresponding active one is always desirable, and is quite necessary where the more irregular passive constructions appear, as in

the child shall be taken good care of by us.

Here, after parsing the passive verb-phrase **shall be taken**, in the same manner as **was broken** above, we must add that the sentence is the converse of the active sentence

we will take good care of the child;

and that the object of the preposition **of** in the latter has been made the passive subject, the **of** remaining with the value of an adverb qualifying the participle **taken**, and the direct object of the active verb, **good care**, being left as a kind of adverbial adjunct to the same participle.

XII. Exercise for practice in parsing verbs.

The mellow year is hasting to its close;
The little birds have almost sung their last.

Great Nature spoke; observant man obeyed;
Cities were formed; societies were made.

By slow degrees the whole truth came out.

Rarely did the wrongs of individuals come to the knowledge of the public.

She gave me of the tree, and I did eat.

Wherefore plucked ye not the tree of life?

I did mark how he did shake.

Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again.

Milton! thou shouldst be living at this hour.

With such a prize no mortal must be blessed.

Who would be free, himself must strike the blow.

I tell you that which ye yourselves do know.

We did not do these things in the good old days.

Judges and senates have been bought for gold.

A lovelier flower on earth was never seen.

When I shall have brought them into the land, then will they turn to other gods.

I thought I should have seen some Hercules.

Without the art of printing, we should now have had no learning at all; for books would have perished faster than they could have been transcribed.

They apprehended that he might have been carried off by gypsies.

I do entreat that we may sup together.

No man can do these miracles, except God be with him.

They shall pursue thee until thou perish.

She 'll not tell me if she love me.

If thou hadst said him nay, it had been sin.

Hugo is gone to his lowly bed.

Men were grown impatient of reproof.

The Picts were never heard of in history after these great defeats.

This work cannot be dispensed with by any book-lover.

The most sacred things may be made an ill use of.

It is laid hands upon and kissed.

So am I given in charge.

The very door-step is worn with my feet.

The barley was just reaped.

She is wedded; her husband is banished.

Thus it was now in England.

Wilfrid had roused him to reply.

He was forbidden access to the sacrifices; he was refused the protection of law.

You would be taught your duty.

Plans and elevations of their palace have been made for them, and are now being engraved for the public.

Some criminal is being tried for murder.

My Prometheus, which has been long finished, is now being transcribed.

It is acting the evil which is being accomplished within him.

Alphabetical List of Irregular Verbs.

Below are given, in alphabetical order, the verbs of the Old conjugation and the irregular verbs of the New, with reference from each to the paragraph where its conjugation is described.

abide, 266
awake, 265
be, 273
bear, 263
beat, 264
begin, 261
bend, 248
bereave, 250
beseech, 254
bid, 264
bind, 262
bite, 267
bleed, 252
blow, 269
break, 263
breed, 252
bring, 254
build, 248
burn, 247
burst, 253
buy, 254
can, 277
cast, 253
catch, 254
chide, 267
choose, 268
cleave, 250, 263
cling, 261
clothe, 255
come, 272
cost, 253
creep, 249
crow, 269
cut, 253
dare, 255-6
deal, 249
dig, 271
do, 272
draw, 265
dream, 249
drink, 261
drive, 266
dwell, 247
eat, 264
fall, 270
feed, 252
feel, 249
fight, 262
find, 262
flee, 251
fling, 261
fly, 269
forsake, 265
freeze, 268
freight, 262
get, 263
gild, 248
gird, 248
give, 264
go, 272
grind, 262
grow, 269
hang, 271
have, 255-6
hear, 251
heave, 263
hide, 267
hit, 253
hold, 270
hurt, 253
keep, 249
kneel, 249
knit, 253
know, 269
lead, 252
lean, 249
leap, 249
learn, 247
leave, 250
lend, 248
let, 253
lie, 264
light, 252
lose, 250
make, 255
may, 277
mean, 249
meet, 252
mote, 278
must, 278
need, 255
ought, 278
pen, 247
put, 253
quit, 253
quoth, 272
read, 252
reave, 250
rend, 248
rid, 253
ride, 266
ring, 261
rise, 266
run, 261
say, 251
see, 264
seek, 254
seethe, 268
sell, 255
send, 248
set, 253
shake, 265
shall, 277
shear, 263
shed, 253
shine, 266
shoe, 251
shoot, 252
show, 269
shred, 253
shrink, 261
shut, 253
sing, 261
sink, 261
sit, 264
slay, 265
sleep, 249
slide, 267
sling, 261
slink, 261
slit, 253
smell, 247
smite, 266
sow, 269
speak, 263
speed, 252
spell, 247
spend, 248
spill, 247
spin, 261
spit, 253
split, 253
spoil, 247
spread, 253
spring, 261
stand, 265
stave, 265
steal, 263
stick, 271
sting, 261
stink, 261
stride, 266
strike, 271
string, 261
strive, 266
strow,-ew, 269
swear, 263
sweat, 253
sweep, 249
swim, 261
swing, 261
take, 265
teach, 254
tear, 263
tell, 255
think, 254
thrive, 266
throw, 269
thrust, 253
tread, 263
wake, 265
wax, 265
wear, 263
weave, 263
weep, 249
wend, 272
wet, 253
whet, 253
will, 277
win, 261
wind, 262
wit, 272
work, 254
wring, 261
write, 266

CHAPTER IX.

ADVERBS.

308. We saw in the second chapter (**41-2**) that while a word that qualifies a noun is called an adjective, one that qualifies a verb is called an ADVERB; and also that, besides verbs, adverbs qualify adjectives and sometimes other adverbs. Thus,

he spoke truly; a truly upright man;
I see him very often.

That adverbs sometimes also qualify prepositions, is pointed out below (**381**).

309. Not all adverbs can be used with all the parts of speech that adverbs qualify.

The adverbs that qualify other adverbs are almost only those of degree: as **very, too, more, most.**

The same are used most freely with adjectives. But, as adjectives shade off into participles, implying something of condition or action, they take more or less freely the whole series of qualifying adverbs which the verb takes.

On the other hand, adverbs of degree are less used with verbs. Some of the commonest of them, as **very** and **too**, even do not go with verbs directly at all; they have to be changed to **very much, too much.**

Hence these are also avoided with past participles, except such as have been turned fully into adjectives: thus, we say

very timid, but **very much frightened;**
very glad, but **very much rejoiced;**
too weary, but **too much fatigued;**
too angry, but **too much enraged.**

310. Adverbs shade off into prepositions and conjunctions; and the same word, often, is used as two of these three parts of speech, or even as all the three.

Thus, the oldest and simplest prepositions, such as

in, on, off, up, to,

were originally adverbs, and most of them are still used as such: for example,

he comes in; they ran off;
it turned up; move to and fro.

And when an adverb, instead of qualifying simply the verb, the word of action, in a sentence, qualifies in meaning rather the whole sentence, showing its relation to another sentence or word, it gets the value of a conjunction, and may be named and parsed as one. Compare **331.**

311. Adverbs in English are innumerable, and of the most various meaning and use.

But we may divide them roughly into the following classes:

a. Adverbs of ***place*** and ***motion:*** as,

here, there, yonder, below, above, in, out,
up, down, back, forward, hither, hence;

b. Adverbs of ***time*** and ***succession:*** as,

then, now, formerly, hereafter, always,
often, seldom, never, soon, afterward,
next, once, twice, first, thirdly, fourthly.

c. Adverbs of ***manner*** and ***quality:*** as,

so, thus, somehow, otherwise, well, ill,
truly, foolishly, roundly, faithfully.

d. Adverbs of ***measure*** and ***degree:*** as,

much, little, more, least, almost, all,
scarcely, quite, very, enough, greatly.

e. Adverbs of ***modality,*** or ***modal*** adverbs — such as show the way in which the thought is conceived by the speaker, the relation of one thought to another, and so on; thus, ***affirmative*** adverbs are, for example,

surely, certainly, indeed;

negative are

not, noways;

potential are

perhaps, possibly, probably;

causal are

hence, therefore, accordingly.

The modal adverbs oftenest come to be used as conjunctions.

The same adverb may be of one and another class, in different meanings and connections.

312. Adverbs, again, like the other parts of speech, are either simple, derivative, or compound.

Examples of SIMPLE adverbs, or of such as cannot be traced to simpler forms without going outside of English, are

so, now, ill, much, quite, enough, often.

313. The principal classes of DERIVATIVE adverbs are as follows:—

a. Adverbs are formed from adjectives with the suffix **ly**: examples are

truly, wholly, hastily, distressingly, ponderously, disinterestedly.

This is by far the largest class of our adverbs; most adjectives of quality, and some of other kinds, take the suffix **ly** to make a corresponding adverb.

But adjectives in **ble** shorten **bly** into **bly**: thus,

ably, terribly, respectably.

And those in **ic** change the **ic** into **ical** before **ly**: thus,

frantically, rustically, authentically.

b. A few adverbs are formed from adjectives and nouns by the suffix **wise**: thus,

likewise, otherwise, crosswise, lengthwise.

These might almost more properly be called compound, since **wise** has not gone absolutely out of use as an independent word.

c. Adverbs of direction are formed from other adverbs (rarely adjectives and nouns), by the suffix **ward** or **wards**: thus,

toward or **towards, upward** or **upwards, forward, backward, afterward, downward, homeward, shoreward.**

d. Not a few adjectives are used as adverbs without any change of form: thus,

much, more, little, all, ill, fast, far.

Some such adjectives take also the ending **ly**, there being some difference generally in regard to meaning between the form with **ly** and the one without it: thus,

even and **evenly**;	**most** and **mostly**;
hard and **hardly**;	**late** and **lately**;
wide and **widely**;	**sore** and **sorely**.

In poetry, especially, the use of an adjective as adverb directly, without any added ending, is very common: examples are,

the birds sang clear; rivers gliding free;
the listener scarce might know; soft sighed the flute.

A few adverbs are adverbially used cases of nouns: thus,

home, back, half,

which are objective cases; and **needs**, which is a possessive case; and **wise, ways, days, times**, and so on, in compound adverbs, are of the same origin.

e. Three series of adverbs corresponding to one another come from pronominal roots: they are

here, hither, hence;
there, thither, thence, then, thus;
where, whither, whence, when, why, how.

The last series, when used relatively, are conjunctions rather than adverbs: see 331. And the **the** of such phrases as

the sooner the better

is really a pronominal adverb, of the **there** series, meaning (relatively) 'by how much' and (demonstratively) 'by so much.'

f. A number of adverbs come from nouns and adjectives by the prefix **a** (usually for earlier **on**): thus,

aback, ahead, aside, afoot, athirst;
aright, anew, along, abroad, afar.

And the **be** of **betimes, beside, beyond, between, before,** and so on, is in like manner from the preposition **by.**

314. COMPOUND adverbs are mostly little phrases of two (rarely more) words, which have as it were grown together into one: for example,

always, already, almost; somehow, sometimes; henceforward.

Such combinations of a preposition with the word which it governs are especially common: thus,

indeed, erewhile, overhead, beforehand,
perhaps, forsooth, forever.

The adverbs **here, there,** and **where** are combined with many prepositions, forming compound adverbs which are equivalent to **it, this** or **that,** and **which** or **what,** along with the preposition: thus,

herein (= in this) **lies the difficulty;**
in the day thou eatest thereof (= of it);
in whatsoever state I am, therewith (= with that) **to be content;**
the means whereby (= by which) **I live;**
wherewith (= with what) **shall I save Israel?**

315. We have also many ADVERB-PHRASES, generally like the compound adverbs, only not grown together into one word like these. They answer the purpose of single adverbs, and often are not easily analyzed and parsed separately, because they either contain words which are rarely or never found except in these phrases — thus,

by stealth, of yore, at random, in lieu —

or are of irregular construction, being made up of an adjective (really, one used as a noun) with a preposition governing it: thus,

in vain, in short, of old, of late,
at all, at last, on high, ere long, from far, for good.

316. Many adverbs of quality, like adjectives of the same kind, are capable of being made to express various degrees of

quality, by adding those adverbs which are used for the same purpose along with adjectives: for example,

truly, more truly, most truly, less truly, etc.

Also, of the adjectives which are used as adverbs without change of form, the comparative and superlative degrees are generally used adverbially likewise: thus,

better, best; worse, worst; faster, fastest.

But only a very few words that are always adverbs have a real comparison of their own: examples are

soon, sooner, soonest; often, oftener, oftenest.

Rather is a comparative which has at present no corresponding positive or superlative.

317. The adverb **there** is very peculiarly used, as if a kind of indefinite ***grammatical*** subject (**163 a**) of a verb, especially the verb **be**: for example,

there is no money here; a land where there is gold;
there were giants in the land; there can be no retreat;
there fell a frost; there came a voice from heaven.

The real or ***logical*** subject, with which the verb agrees in number, regularly follows the verb: not, however, in interrogative and relative sentences: thus,

what there is, is good; what is there that he cannot do?

RESPONSIVES.

318. The words **yes** and **no**, which are used in replying or *responding* to a question, and are therefore called RESPONSIVES, were originally adverbs, but are so no longer, because they never combine with other words, as modifying or limiting them, but are in themselves complete answers.

Thus, in answer to the question **will you go?**
yes and **no** mean respectively **I will go**; or **I will not go.**

In answer to **are you frightened?**
they mean **I am frightened**; or **I am not frightened**;
and so on.

The responsives stand thus for a whole sentence, and hence are not properly "*parts* of speech" (19, 20) at all, in the real meaning of that name, but are more analogous with the interjections (50). But although they form a class by themselves, it is too small a class to call for more than these few words of explanation.

PARSING OF ADVERBS.

In parsing an adverb we need, as in the case of the other parts of speech, to point out its *kind*, its *form*, and its *construction*.

As regards the construction, the adverb is always a qualifying word, and has (380) no variety of uses as such; it is enough, then, to mention what word is qualified by it.

Into the question of form, as derivative or compound, the pupil may be required to enter according to his stage of advancement, at the discretion of the teacher. But adverbs coming from adjectives by the common suffix ly should, at any rate, be pointed out and explained from a very early stage; and also, usually, the adverbs which are identical in form with adjectives. If the word is a comparative or superlative, this should be noticed; otherwise, the subject of comparison may be passed over.

The classification of adverbs is not without difficulty, since the classes are not divided by fixed lines, and the same word may be put in one or another class according to slight changes of its meaning. It is, perhaps, of more use to let the pupil tell in what way, or for what purpose, the adverb qualifies the word to which it is added, without attempting precisely to define its class.

An adverb-phrase may be simply defined as such, or it may be analyzed and its parts defined, as shall seem best to the teacher.

Examples of adverbs have been given abundantly in the exercises on previous chapters, and others will be given in the exercises on Syntax (Chapters XIII., XIV.): it is therefore unnecessary to add any here.

CHAPTER X.

PREPOSITIONS.

319. A preposition, as we have already seen (**44–6**) is not a word that names or points out or asserts or qualifies or describes anything; it only shows a relation. It is a word that connects other words, showing the relation between them.

Regularly and usually, a preposition is followed by a noun or pronoun. It is a connecting word by which a noun or pronoun is made to limit some other word, or by which it is attached to that other word in a relation which the preposition defines.

320. The noun or pronoun on which the preposition exercises its connecting or attaching force is called its ***object,*** and, like the object of a verb, is in the objective case: thus,

with me; from him; to us; on them.

It is, then, said of the preposition, as of the verb, that it ***governs*** its object in the objective case: that is, requires it to take the form of that case.

321. The word with which the noun or pronoun is brought into relation by the preposition may be any of the other parts of speech already described.

Thus, it may be

a. A verb: as,

he went with us;
it fell through the air to the ground;
put it on the table or into your pocket;
they stayed until night under shelter.

b. An adjective: as,

good for nothing;	**free from dirt;**
hoary with age;	**prized above measure.**

c. An adverb (rarely): as,

sufficiently for my purpose.

d. Another noun or pronoun: as,

a box of wood;	**the top of the house;**
a ring for the finger;	**doors with hinges;**
pins without heads;	**souls above deceit;**
they of Italy;	**who among you?**

And, as will be pointed out in the Syntax (400 etc.), according to these different offices, the phrase composed of the preposition and its object is called by different names.

322. But a preposition not unfrequently takes for its object an adverb (of place or time): thus,

from above, from behind, since then,
before then, till now, to here, at once,
between now and then, for ever;

and hence also, naturally enough, a prepositional adverb-phrase (402), or a phrase having the value of an adverb, and made up of a preposition and its object: thus,

from under the house; till after the ball;
since over two weeks.

It has been already pointed out (315) that in certain adverbial phrases a preposition governs an adjective (really used as a noun): thus,

on high, of old, in vain, for good.

323. A preposition, especially in poetry, is sometimes made to follow instead of preceding the word it governs: thus,

to wander earth around;	**ties all other ties above;**
the fields among;	**look the whole world over.**

But very frequently, in all styles of English, the object of a preposition is placed before the verb in the sentence, while the preposition comes after it: for example,

your objections we make no account of;
this house I never again show my face in;
what did you come for?
John is the name that he answers to.

Then, if the relative word is omitted, as often happens (**184**), the preposition still remains in its place after the verb: thus,

John is the name he answers to.

And in other constructions, in which there is no expressed object of the preposition, it remains with the verb, or with an infinitive or participle, having the value of an adverbial adjunct: thus,

a greater blockhead than I took you for;
your case shall be attended to;
a good horse to ride on;
a place for pitching one's tent in;
people worth speaking with;
a matter often inquired into, but never disposed of.

324. The prepositions do not form a very large class of words; in English they number considerably less than a hundred.

The simple prepositions are:

at, after, against, but, by, down, ere, for, from, in, of, off, over, on (a'), since, through, till, to, under, up, with.

325. Derivative and compound prepositions are made:

a. From other prepositional or adverbial elements: thus,

into, unto, until, onto, upon, underneath, before, behind, beyond, above, about, toward, within, without, throughout.

b. From nouns and adjectives: thus,

among or **amongst, across, beside** or **besides,**
amid or **amidst, along, athwart, aslant,**
around, below, between or **betwixt, despite.**

The adverbial adjectives **nigh, near, next, like,** in some of their uses come very near to a prepositional value (compare **366**): thus,

she sat near the lake; **quit yourselves like men.**

c. From verbs: thus,

save or **saving, during, notwithstanding, touching, concerning, respecting, except** or **excepting, past.**

Ago (for earlier **agone**: that is, 'gone by') may also be regarded as a preposition, always following its object: thus,

he left an hour ago;

or, better, as an adverb of time, qualified by the adverbial objective (380) **an hour** etc., as in **an hour sooner, an hour hence.**

326. There are many phrases, combinations of independent words, which are used in a way so like that in which prepositions are used that they are conveniently and properly enough treated as equivalents of prepositions, or PREPOSITION-PHRASES. Such are, for example,

out of, from out, as to, as for, on this (or **that** etc.) **side, along side, in front of, by way of, because of, for the sake of, in stead** or **in lieu of, in respect** or **regard to, according to;**

and not a few others.

PARSING OF PREPOSITIONS.

Neither the kind nor the form of a proposition calls for definition in parsing the word. It needs only to be pointed out what word or phrase is the object of the preposition, to what it is joined by the latter, and for what purpose — as was sufficiently illustrated in the exercises on Chapter V. Further examples are deferred until the classification of prepositional phrases is taken up, in Chapter XIII.

CHAPTER XI.

CONJUNCTIONS.

327. A conjunction (47-8), like a preposition, is a connective, a word that joins other words together, at the same time showing something as to their relation to one another.

But a conjunction is a very different kind of connective from a preposition.

In the first place, its usual and principal office is to connect two sentences together: thus,

he spoke and they listened;
they listened, but they could not hear;
we piped while they danced;
they went because they could not help it;
he will pay if you wish it;
I see that the way is hard;
he knows whether he did it.

If a preposition is used to join a sentence instead of a word to another, it is no longer a preposition, but becomes a conjunction (331); thus,

you may wait until he comes;
he will come before you have waited long.

In the second place, though some of the conjunctions - especially **and, or, but** — often connect words in the same sentence, these words are always CO-ORDINATE (the word means 'of equal *order* or rank'): that is to say, they are used alike in the sentence, or have the same construction.

They may be, for example, two or more subjects or objects of the same verb: thus,

he and I ran a race; **I saw the cat and the dog;**

or adjectives or adverbs qualifying the same word: thus,

an honest but mistaken man; neither well nor truly said;

or prepositions governing the same word: thus,

by and with our consent; either for or against me.

Even two verbs having the same subject are also often connected by these conjunctions: as,

he came and saw it; we heard but refused the request.

In such a case the question arises whether we shall or shall not consider the sentences as two, the second having its subject omitted: see **487.**

328. The most important division of the conjunctions, according to their use, is that into CO-ORDINATING and SUB-ORDINATING conjunctions.

This distinction cannot be fully understood except in connection with the subject of compound and complex sentences, which will be treated later, in the Syntax (Chapter XIV.).

329. CO-ORDINATING conjunctions are those that join together sentences of equal order or rank.

The commonest conjunctions of this class are

and, or, but, for.

And simply *couples* or joins on one sentence to another, and hence is called ***copulative.*** Others of similar force are

also, likewise, eke, too, besides, moreover.

Or implies an ***alternative,*** and is best so called: others like it are

either, else, neither, nor.

Either and **or,** and their negatives **neither** and **nor,** are called ***correlative*** (that is, 'having a mutual relation'), because they occur generally together, introducing the two alternatives, and the former of them is always followed by the latter: thus,

either he must leave, or I shall go;
neither this man sinned, nor his parents.

There are also correlative copulative conjunctions: thus, **both . . . and; at once** (or **alike**) **. . . and; not only . . . but also; as well . . . as; what . . . what.**

But usually implies something opposed or *adverse* to what has been said, and hence is called ***adversative:*** thus,

you thought him honest, but he is not.

Others like it are

yet, however, still, only, nevertheless, notwithstanding.

For points out a reason or cause, and is called ***causal;*** and with it may be put

therefore, then, hence,

which connect an inference or conclusion with the reason for it.

330. SUBORDINATING conjunctions are those which join a subordinate or dependent clause to that on which it depends.

A dependent clause is one which forms a part or member of another clause, having the value of a noun, or an adjective, or an adverb, in that other: see **423.**

Some of the commonest conjunctions and conjunction-phrases of this class are:

a. Conjunctions of ***place*** and ***time:*** thus,

where, whence, when, as, while (or **whilst**),
until, before, ere, since, after, as soon as, as long as.

Within a short time, British speakers and authors have begun to use words like **directly** and **immediately** as conjunctions of time: saying, for example,

for **directly he got in, the train started,**

as soon as he got in etc.

This ungraceful innovation is thus far almost unknown in American use.

b. Conjunctions of ***cause*** and ***condition:*** thus,

because, since, whereas, for that;
if, unless, without, except, provided;
though, although, albeit, notwithstanding.

c. Conjunctions of ***end*** or ***purpose:*** thus,

that, so that, in order that, lest.

d. Conjunctions of ***comparison:*** thus,

as, than.

After the comparative conjunctions, the clause is especially often shortened, sometimes to a single word (compare **494**) : for example,

he is a better man than I [am];
thou shalt love thy neighbor as [thou lovest] **thyself.**

And with the relative **who, than** is treated as if it were a preposition, requiring an objective case : thus,

than whom there is none better.

e. That (apart from its use in the sense of 'in order that' : thus, **he died that we might live**) has a peculiar value in introducing a substantive clause : that is, a clause used with the value of a noun (**422**) : for example, as subject noun,

that he was here is not true;

as object noun,

I did not say that he was here;

as object of a preposition,

I should try, except that I fear to fail.

We may best call it, then, the ***substantive*** conjunction.

331. Only a few simple words are used solely as conjunctions : such are

and, eke, or, nor, lest, than.

Many conjunctions are also adverbs ; and it often is not possible to draw a distinct line between the use of a word as adverb and as conjunction. As above pointed out (**310**), the same word is an adverb when it distinctly qualifies the verb in a clause, and a conjunction when it qualifies rather the whole clause, determining its relation to another.

For example, we have adverbial uses in

he finished his work, and then went away;
he might have stayed, but he chose otherwise;
when we left, he was yet living.

And we have conjunctional uses in

have you finished? then go away;
he was angry, otherwise he would have stayed;
he is very ill, yet he may live a week.

The words

when, where, whither, whence, why, how,

which are adverbs when used interrogatively, are conjunctions when used relatively (**185**), since their relative force (**175**) directly joins on the clause which contains them to an antecedent word or clause.

Many prepositions are also used as conjunctions: especially, by the omission of the substantive conjunction **that** which formerly followed them (and is sometimes still used): thus,

he had left before I arrived;

or

he had left before that I arrived.

On the other hand, in old-style English, **that** is superfluously inserted after many conjunctions: for example,

when that the poor have cried;
if that my husband now were but returned!

That as conjunction, as well as **that** as relative pronoun (**184**), is often omitted: see **436**.

PARSING OF CONJUNCTIONS.

Besides naming a conjunction or conjunction-phrase as such, we need only to point out whether it is co-ordinating or subordinating, and what are the words or the sentences which it connects. But this can be only imperfectly done until the subject of compound and complex sentences has been taken up (Chapter XIV.); and any special exercises on conjunctions had better be omitted until then.

CHAPTER XII.

INTERJECTIONS.

332. As we saw in the second chapter (**50-1**), an interjection is not in the proper sense a "part of speech," since it does not combine with other "parts" to form that whole which we call a sentence. It is a direct intimation of feeling or of will, made expressive chiefly by the tone, the inflection of voice, with which it is uttered.

Thus, for example, **ah!** expresses a number of different feelings — such as joy, pain, surprise, disgust — according to the way in which it is uttered.

333. The interjections are not real natural outbursts of feeling, like a scream, a groan, a sigh, though they come nearer to this character than anything else in language. They are, like all our other words, means of communication; they are utterances by which we seek to signify to others that we are moved by such and such feelings. Hence, each language has its own set of interjections, more or less different from those of other languages.

334. Some of the ordinary English interjections are:

a. Of joy, glad surprise, pleasant emotion:

oh! ah! ha! hey! hurrah! huzza!

b. Of painful feeling or suffering:

oh! ah! alas! well-a-day! dear me! heigh-ho!

c. Of disapproval or contempt:

poh! fie! faugh! fudge! whew!

d. Of calling attention:

ho! hola! hollo! hem! lo!

e. Of quieting or repressing:

hist! hush! tut! mum!

f. Words made in imitation of natural sounds are a kind of interjection: thus,

pop! bang! bow-wow! ding-dong! rub-a-dub!

335. The interjections shade off into ordinary words, as used in an exclamatory or interjectional way.

The sentence is the means of expression of calm assertion, of reasoning, of explanation, of description. When the speaker is moved with strong feeling, the sentence-form of expression is wont to be more or less abandoned, and only the prominent words to be uttered, with tone and gesture that sufficiently explain them : see Chapter XVII.

Some of our ordinary words, real parts of speech, are so much used in this exclamatory way that they are almost to be called interjections. Such are

how, why, what, well, indeed, hail, behold.

Words and phrases of asseveration, from **indeed** and **I declare** up to the strongest oaths, are of the nature of interjections.

Some words which now appear only as interjections were once ordinary parts of speech; but their character as such has become corrupted and disguised : thus,

zounds ('by God's wounds');
egad ('by God');
alas (*ah lasso*, 'O [me] miserable');
O dear (*O dieu*, 'O God').

336. The interjections are sometimes combined with other words in exclamatory phrases : thus,

ah me! alas the day! **O horror! what ho!**
O for a calm, a thankful heart! **O that it were so!**

The use of **O** in address with the vocative (**141**), the interjectional case of the noun, is very common : for example,

O thou that bringest good tidings! **give ear, O ye heavens!**
justice, O royal duke! **to your tents, O Israel!**

PARSING OF INTERJECTIONS.

An interjection needs only to be defined as such, along with a statement of the purpose for which it is used — the feeling which it expresses, the natural sound which it imitates, and so on.

CHAPTER XIII.

SYNTAX: THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

337. Syntax treats of the combinations of words for use in the expression of our thoughts.

Not a few of the leading principles and rules of syntax have been already stated and illustrated; we have here to take them up in a more connected and systematic way, repeating many things that have been said before, and adding others that are new.

338. The combinations of words which we make in expressing ourselves are called SENTENCES; and these sentences are of three kinds:

1. Assertions or statements;
2. Questions;
3. Commands (demands, wishes).

339. The usual sentence is the assertion or statement; or (as we have called it before: see **22**) the ASSERTIVE SENTENCE.

This is the regular form of our expression; it is the model, as it were, of which the other two are variations. For this reason we shall for the present consider it alone, then afterward (Chapter XVI.) taking up the other two kinds of sentences, and also (Chapter XVII.) the incomplete or abbreviated sentence, in which one or another part, usually expressed, is wanting.

340. No sentence can be made except by means of a verb, since the verb is the only part of speech that asserts, or declares, or ***predicates.***

341. All that is absolutely necessary besides a verb to make a complete assertion, or a full sentence, is the name of some person or thing about which the assertion is made.

This name must be either a noun (which is the part of speech that 'names'), or a pronoun, the usual substitute of a noun, or some other part of speech used ***substantively***, or with the value of a noun (**143** etc.).

342. As this name is the subject of the statement, or that about which the statement is made, it is called in grammar the SUBJECT of the sentence; and the verb is called the PREDICATE: that is, 'the thing stated or asserted.'

343. As the verb is the essential part of every sentence, or the part that makes the assertion, the subject of the sentence is also called the subject (or subject-nominative) of the verb. And every verb, since it implies a statement, must have along with it its subject, or the word showing what the statement is about.

344. Examples of the simplest sentence, composed only of a verb and its subject, are

God rules;	**men obey;**	**stones fall;**
smoke rises;	**John reads;**	**children spell;**
I speak;	**you hear;**	**he obeys.**

Others have been given in the second chapter and the exercises upon it.

As we shall see more plainly hereafter, however long a sentence may become, it can still be divided into the same two parts: the subject being the full definition or description of the person or thing about which the statement is made, and the predicate being the complete assertion made about it (compare **28**).

345. In all those words — namely, most of the pronouns — which have, besides the genitive or possessive, a double case-form (**72**), the nominative or subjective case is alone used as the subject of a statement: thus,

I give, not **me give;**	**he loved,** not **him loved;**
they went, not **them went;**	**who spoke,** not **whom spoke.**

346. Again, so far as the verb has different forms of person and number, the form used is of the same person and number with the subject — being, therefore, always in the third person if its subject is a noun (**141**): thus,

I give, not **I gives;**	**thou goest,** not **thou go** or **goes;**
he runs, not **he run;**	**the man runs,** not **the man runnest;**
we are, not **we am** or **is;**	**the men were,** not **the men was.**

This (as we have seen before, **60**) is also expressed by saying that the verb ***agrees*** with its subject in number and person; or that the subject ***governs*** the verb in number and person — that is, *requires* the verb to be of a certain character in these respects: the subject being given, the verb is compelled to correspond with it in number and person.

347. We have, then, these first rules of syntax, which apply to all sentences, but which are the only ones that apply to a ***bare*** sentence, a sentence composed of a verb and its subject and nothing more:

I. A *sentence* is composed of *subject* and *predicate:* the subject, a noun (or a word or words having the value of a noun), names that of which something is asserted or declared; the predicate, a verb, expresses that which is asserted or declared of the subject.

II. The subject of the sentence (also called the subject-nominative of the verb) is in the *nominative* case.

III. The verb *agrees* in person and number with its subject.

348. A few special cases under these rules need to be noticed here:

a. A verb sometimes has for its subject the pronoun **it** (**163 b**), not as standing for any real actor, but as helping to signify that a certain condition or action exists or is going on.

Thus,

it rains, it thunders, it is dark, it strikes seven.

These are called IMPERSONAL expressions: see **307.**

b. A verb is often used in the plural along with a collective

noun (**114**) in the singular, when we have in mind the separate individuals composing the collection: thus,

the happy pair go hand in hand; the jury give their verdict;
the crowd throng the streets; a half of them are gone.

c. Two or more words connected by **and**, even if singular, are so combined into one that, as subject, they regularly take a plural verb (compare **488**): thus,

my father and mother are here;
anger and spite were in his face.

[See Exercise XIII., at the end of the chapter.]

349. But it is comparatively seldom that a sentence is made up of a bare noun or pronoun and a bare verb; and we have next to look and see how this simple and necessary framework is extended and filled out, so as to let us express more, or express things more definitely, in a single sentence.

PREDICATE NOUN AND ADJECTIVE.

350. Many verbs are not in themselves complete as predicates; we almost never put them alone along with a subject; when so put, they do not make a sentence that seems to have a full meaning; we wait for something more to be added.

351. One class of these verbs is made up of such as call for something more to be added relating to the subject, and further describing or qualifying it. For example,

I am . . . .; we were . . . .;
they seem . . . .; the man looked . . . . .

We may complete such statements by adding a noun or an adjective: thus,

I am poor; we were brothers;
they seem hungry; the man looked tired.

352. A word thus used is called a PREDICATE NOUN or a PREDICATE ADJECTIVE; or, the noun or adjective is said to stand in the predicate, or to be used predicatively.

This is because it in a manner completes the predication or assertion made by the verb; it qualifies the subject, being made part of the assertion respecting the latter; it does so by the help of the verb, which brings it into connection with the subject.

353. The number of verbs thus taking a predicate adjective or noun is not a very large one. They are sometimes called VERBS OF INCOMPLETE PREDICATION. Such are:

a. The verb **be**: thus,

I am ill; he was angry; they will be tired;
you are a scholar; she was the heroine; they have been soldiers.

This is by far the commonest of the whole class. The verb **be**, in all its various forms, has come to stand as a mere connective of assertion between a subject and some word or words describing that subject, and so to have no meaning of its own except that of signifying the assertion. It simply *couples* together two words in the relation of a subject and a predicate. It is therefore commonly called the COPULA (that is, 'coupler').

Indeed, every verb admits of being taken apart, or analyzed, into some form of this copula **be**, which expresses the act of assertion, and a predicate noun or adjective (especially the verbal adjective, the present participle), expressing the condition or quality or action predicated. Thus,

I stand

is nearly **I am erect**, or, still more nearly,

I am standing;

again,

are equivalent to	**we gave,**		**they beg,**
	we were givers,	or	**we were giving;**
	they are beggars,	or	**they are begging;**

and in a similar way we form the "progressive" verb-phrases (**281**) by the side of all the simple tenses and the simpler phrases: thus,

we give,	and	**we are giving;**
we shall give,	and	**we shall be giving;**
we may have given,	and	**we may have been giving;**

and so on.

b. Become, with its near equivalents **grow, get, turn**, and the like: thus,

I became ill; his face grew black.

c. **Remain, continue, stay,** and the like : thus,

John remained silent; he continues grateful.

d. **Seem, appear, look,** and the like : thus,

she seems a goddess; it looks terrible.

e. **Sound, smell, feel,** and the like : thus,

we feel outraged; it smells sweet.

f. Verbs of condition and motion, like **stand, sit, go, move,** and so on : thus,

the door stands open; they sat mute;
he will go mad; my blood runs cold.

g. The passives of verbs which take an objective predicate (below, **369**) : thus,

he was made angry; they are called cannibals.

354. The predicate use of the adjective shades off into an adverbial construction, and the two are not always to be readily or clearly distinguished from each other. Their distinction depends on the degree to which the added word is intended to qualify the subject on the one hand, or the action of the verb itself on the other. Thus, we may say,

we feel warm, it is buried deep,

when we mean 'feel ourselves to be warm,' 'buried so as to be deep'; or we may say

we feel warmly, it is buried deeply,

when we mean that the feeling is a warm one, that the burying was a deep one. And in

he looks well,

we understand **well** to be predicate adjective when the sense is 'he looks in good health, he appears as if he were well'; but adverb if the sense is 'he is good-looking.' But in

he sits next,

next may be understood in either way without any important difference.

Again, we say of a fruit,

it looks ripe, it feels ripe, it smells ripe, it tastes ripe;

because the meaning is that in these various ways we judge it actually to *be* ripe. And well-established usage allows us to say

the girl looks pretty; the rose smells sweet; the wine tastes sour;

although in each case the adverb, **prettily** and so on, would in strict theory be better.

355. With the verbs of condition and motion (**353 f**), especially, the qualifying force of the predicate adjective is very often really distributed between the subject and the verb. Thus, in

he stands firm,

we mean not only that he is firm in his standing, but also that the standing itself is firm. So also in

the sun shines bright; the messenger comes running; the tone rings clear and full.

An adjective thus used may be distinguished as an ADVERBIAL PREDICATE.

The predicate adjective, especially the adverbial predicate, shades off into the appositive adjective (**376**).

Yet another kind of predicate adjective or noun, an objective or factitive predicate, will be described farther on (**369**).

356. A word in the predicate (except a predicate possessive, **388**) ought, since it qualifies the subject, to be in the same case with it; and this rule is generally observed in English — that is to say, in the pronouns, the only words which distinguish nominative and objective. Thus, we say

it is I; it was we; if it were she;

and so on. Careless and inaccurate speakers, however, often use such expressions as

it is them; it was us; if it were her;

and in the case of

it is me,

the practice has become so common that it is even regarded as good English by respectable authorities.

357. We have, then, the definition and rule:

IV. A *predicate* adjective or noun is one which is brought by a verb into relation with its subject, as qualifying or describing the subject.

V. A predicate (pronoun) agrees regularly in case with the subject which it qualifies.

[See Exercise XIV., at the end of the chapter.]

OBJECT OF THE VERB.

358. A very much larger class of verbs than those spoken of above are seldom used alone with a subject to form a sentence, on account of being incomplete in another way — namely, as they call for the addition of a word to express some person or thing on which the action they signify is exerted.

Thus, for example,

I fold . . . ; she tells . . . ; the man clutches . . . ;

where we expect an addition telling what is folded, or told, or clutched, and the sense is made complete in some such way as this :

I fold the paper; she tells a story;
the man clutches the rope.

Such an added word is always a name of something, a noun (or else a pronoun or other equivalent of a noun); and it is called the OBJECT of the verb (**71**), because it signifies that at which the action of the verb is directed, that which receives or endures or suffers the effect of the action, of whatever kind it may be.

The verb which takes such an object to complete its meaning is called a TRANSITIVE verb (**223**), because its action, instead of being merely asserted of the subject, 'passes over' and affects another noun, the object.

359. When we use a pronoun in this way — thus,

I strike him, they saw us —

the case in which the object is put is the objective: indeed, this case is so named as being especially that belonging to the object of the verb.

Hence, as we have already seen (**74**), we say that a transitive verb ***governs*** the objective case, or governs a noun in that case: that is, its object is *compelled* or *required* to be of that case.

360. But verbs which can take an object in the way here described, and which are therefore ordinarily called transitive, may in English, almost without exception, be used without any expressed object, or INTRANSITIVELY. In that case, they signify simply the doing of the action, without taking any account of whom or what it is done to. For example:

I love, he strikes, they see, you speak.

361. On the other hand, there are verbs which do not properly take after them such an object: thus, for example,

sit, fall, run, lie.

We may sit *on* something, fall *from* somewhere, run *over* some one, and so on; but we do not sit any one or anything. Such verbs are called INTRANSITIVES.

They are also sometimes called *neuter*; but this is a term belonging to the division into active, passive, and neuter; and in English we have no passive verbs, but only passive verb-phrases (**297** etc.): all our verbs are "active," and therefore no one of them needs to be defined as such.

362. But even some intransitive verbs take an object in certain peculiar constructions.

Thus:

a. An object expressing in noun-form the action, or a variety of the action, signified by the verb itself: as,

he has lived a long life; I slept a deep sleep;
they ran their race; you will dance a jig;
let us die the death of the righteous.

This is called a COGNATE object: that is, one 'allied' or 'related' in meaning to the verb itself.

b. An object along with a "factitive predicate," the verb being taken in the sense (see below, **370**) of producing a certain effect by the action which it expresses: as,

he walked himself weary; they yawned their jaws out of joint.

c. An indefinite or impersonal object **it** (**163 b**), in such phrases as

they frolic it along; she coquettes it with every fellow she sees.

d. Occasionally, a reflexive (306) object: as,

she went and sat her down over against him; stand thee close, then.

As for certain apparent objects which are not really so, see below, 390.

363. The kind of object which we have thus far considered is also called a DIRECT object, because its relation to the "governing" verb is so close and immediate as not to admit the help of any auxiliary word, as a preposition, to define it.

364. But some verbs take, along with such a direct object, another of a different character, in a relation which we more usually express by **to** or **for**: for example,

he gave me the book;
I made him a coat;
they paid the man his wages;
we forgive our friends their faults.

In the first sentence, **me** points out *to* whom the action of giving the book was done; in the second, **him** shows *for* whom the action of making the coat was performed; and so on.

This appears clearly enough when we change the place of the words in question, putting them after the direct object. Then we are obliged to use prepositions, saying

he gave the book to me; I made a coat for him.

365. Such a second object, then, is called an INDIRECT object, because it represents what is less directly affected by the action of the verb, and because the same relation may be, and often is, expressed by prepositions — namely, by **to**, or, more rarely, by **for**.

One common verb, **ask**, takes a second or indirect object in a relation usually expressed by **of**: thus,

I asked him his name;

but

I asked a favor of him;

and a like construction is now and then met with, irregularly, in the case of other verbs.

366. The indirect object, like the direct, is put in the objective case. But the objective in this use is to be

called the DATIVE-OBJECTIVE, since it answers to the "dative" case of other languages, as the objective of the direct object answers to the "accusative" (compare **139-40**). It is put, in the sentence, between the verb and the direct object.

The adjectives **nigh, near, next,** and **like,** both in adjective and in adverbial use, may be and usually are followed by a dative-objective directly (without the connective **to**): thus,

he was near falling;	**she sits next me;**
a man like few others;	**he drives like Jehu.**

Although we may use **to** and **for** in expressing the relation of the indirect object, we must not make the mistake of supposing that a **to** or **for** is left out, and to be "understood" as expressed along with the object itself — any more than that **of** is left out with **John's,** because instead of it we may say **of John.** The dative is not, indeed, like the possessive, now distinguished by an ending of its own; but it was so formerly.

367. Some verbs, like **pay** and **forgive,** often take their indirect object alone, as well as their direct: thus, either, with direct object,

we paid the wages, he forgave the offence,

or, with indirect,

we paid the man, he forgave the offender.

Either object, when thus used alone, is apt to seem to us a direct one; and it is only when we come to put them together that we see their true relation.

And not a few verbs which were formerly intransitive, taking an indirect or dative object, are now reckoned by us as only transitive (an example is **follow**).

368. We may sum up as follows:

VI. A *transitive* verb takes a *direct* object, expressing that which is immediately affected by the action of the verb; and sometimes also an *indirect* object, expressing that *to* or *for* which the action is performed.

VII. The object of a verb, whether direct or indirect, is in the *objective* case (the direct being an *accusative*-objective, the indirect a *dative*-objective).

OBJECTIVE OR FACTITIVE PREDICATE.

369. We have seen above (**350** etc.) that a predicate adjective or noun is one which, being added to a verb, forms part of the predication or assertion about the subject of the verb; one that is made, through the verb, to describe or qualify the subject.

Now it is sometimes also the case that an adjective or noun is, through the verb, brought into a like relation to the direct object, as qualifying that object.

Thus, in

he made the stick straight,

the adjective **straight** qualifies the object **stick**, by becoming a kind of addition to the verb **made**, defining the nature of the action exerted on **stick**. We may say instead

he straightened the stick.

Here the adjective is, as it were, taken into the verb, and becomes a part of the assertion made by the verb alone; **straightened** can be taken apart into **made straight** with reference to the object, just as it may be taken apart into **is straightening** with reference to the subject.

Then, if we turn the construction into a "passive" one (**298**), making the former object **stick** the subject, **straight** becomes an ordinary predicate adjective qualifying it: thus,

the stick was made straight.

Other examples are

we called him a coward;	**they chose her queen;**
he must keep the water hot;	**she carries her head high;**
I left them waiting;	**you see him running.**

To these the corresponding passives, with the noun or adjective turned into an ordinary predicate, are

he was called by us a coward;	**she was chosen queen;**
the water must be kept hot;	**her head was carried high;**
they were left waiting;	**he is seen running.**

Such examples as **you see him running** show that the construction shades off into one in which the adjective is rather to be regarded as appositive (**376**).

370. An object along with a predicate word qualifying it is taken especially often by a verb that is used in a *factitive* sense: that is, in the sense of 'making' or causing or bringing about something by means of the action which the verb signifies.

Thus, taking **sing** in the usual sense, we should never speak of "singing a throat"; but we may say,

I sang my throat hoarse,

meaning 'I made my throat hoarse by singing.' And, in like manner,

she wrings the clothes dry;
the lightning struck him dead;
they planed the board smooth;

where **wrings dry** means 'makes dry by wringing,' and so on.

Even intransitive verbs are thus used factitively (**362 b**), with object and qualifying predicate: thus,

he danced his feet tired;
they wept their eyes blind.

A verb, whether transitive or intransitive, is especially often used factitively when it is also used reflexively (**306**): thus,

they sang themselves hoarse;
he walked himself weary.

371. An adjective or noun thus made by a verb to qualify its object is called an OBJECTIVE PREDICATE, or a FACTITIVE PREDICATE, adjective or noun.

And we have the rule:

VIII. An adjective or a noun is called *objective* or *factitive predicate* when it is brought by the verb into relation with the direct object, as qualifying or describing that object.

In languages which distinguish the objective case throughout from the subjective or nominative by a different form, this predicate would of course be in the objective, as the ordinary predicate in the nominative; but an instance of such "agreement" cannot occur in English, except after an infinitive: see **451**.

[See Exercise XV., at the end of the chapter.]

ATTRIBUTIVE AND APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE AND NOUN.

372. We have thus far seen that a noun may come to be qualified or described by an adjective or a noun used predicatively: that is, in the way of an assertion that such a quality or state or character or office, or the like, belongs to it — a relation which needs a word of assertion, a verb, to bring it about.

373. But an adjective also, and much oftener, qualifies a noun more directly, being simply added to the noun to describe it; the quality and so on is not asserted, but only mentioned, as belonging to that which the noun expresses.

Thus, in

this man is old,

we make the age the thing which we assert; but in

this old man,

we make it part of the description of the person, about whom we may then go on to make an assertion: as,

this old man has white hair;

where we use another adjective to describe also the object **hair.**

374. An adjective thus used to describe a noun without being part of the assertion or predication made about it is called an ATTRIBUTE, or an ATTRIBUTIVE adjective, or is said to be used ATTRIBUTIVELY (*attribute* means simply 'ascribed' or 'attached').

While a predicative adjective qualifies only the subject or the direct object of a verb, an attributive adjective may qualify a noun in any situation whatever. It is generally put before the noun. For example:

my dear friend's generous heart led him to give the tired traveller a delightful rest, last week, in the best room of his elegant house.

For the logical (not grammatical) distinction between the purely descriptive and the restrictive or limiting use of the attributive adjective, see **191.**

375. A noun is, much less often, used to describe another noun in a way somewhat similar to this.

Thus, in

my friend the hunter carries his weapon, a rifle, on his shoulder,

we have the nouns **friend** and **weapon** limited or described by the addition of **hunter** and **rifle.** There are implied in the sentence the two assertions that

my friend is a hunter, and **his weapon is a rifle;**

but they are only implied, not actually made.

A noun thus used is called APPOSITIVE, or is said to be IN APPOSITION with the other noun.

This means 'in position by the side of,' or 'set alongside'; because the appositive noun seems less closely connected with the noun which it describes, less dependent on it, than the attributive adjective; it is, rather, an independent word, added to the other for the purpose of further describing the same thing.

376. But an adjective is also often joined to a noun in a looser and more indirect way, so much like that of the appositive noun that it is also to be called an APPOSITIVE ADJECTIVE.

Examples are

for these reasons, avowed and secret;
all poetry, ancient or modern;
young, handsome, and clever, the page was the darling of the house;

where the shade of meaning is a little different from what it would be in

for these avowed and secret reasons;
all ancient or modern poetry;
the young, handsome, and clever page.

We have, namely, in the appositive adjective a more distinct suggestion of an

added clause, of which the adjective would be the predicate — as if, for example, we said

since he was young, handsome, and clever, the page was etc.

Yet, as we have seen already (175), the attributive adjective also may always be turned into the predicate of a descriptive clause. And it is quite impossible to draw a distinct line between the attributive and the appositive use of the adjective. If we make the description at all complicated by adding modifiers to the adjective, we may not put the adjective in the usual place of an attribute, close before the noun, but must separate it, like an appositive, from the noun. Thus, we say

his ruddy countenance; the loveliest vale;

but

his countenance, ruddy with the hue of youth;

a vale, loveliest of all vales on earth;

or

ruddy with the hue of youth, his countenance was pleasant to look upon;

and so on.

Hence, as the participles have modifiers added to them much more freely than ordinary adjectives, the participles are especially used in appositive construction (see below, 457).

A pronoun, which almost never takes an attributive adjective before it, like a noun, has an appositive adjective or noun added to it just as freely as a noun: thus,

we, poor in friends, sought their love;
they ran off laughing;
tired and hungry, he hastened home;
you Frenchmen are livelier than we English.

377. On the other hand, a noun is now and then used quite in the manner of an attributive adjective: thus,

my hunter friend, her soldier cousin, the drummer boy.

We may properly call such a noun attributive; or we may say that it is used with the value of an attributive adjective. Compound nouns (119 b) sometimes grow out of this combination.

378. We have, then, the definitions:

IX. An adjective qualifying a noun directly (not through a verb) is called *attributive* — or, if more loosely connected with the noun, it is called *appositive*.

X. A noun added to another noun, by way of further description of the same object, is said to be *in apposition* with that noun.

That an appositive adjective or noun also qualifies a pronoun has been explained above.

379. In languages which inflect their adjectives, and inflect their nouns more fully, attributive and appositive words are regularly made to *agree* in case, or in number and case, with the nouns (or pronouns) which they qualify or describe. But no such agreement is possible with the English adjective, because it is wholly uninflected (with the exception of **this** and **these, that** and **those**: see **76**); and it is only imperfectly made in the possessive case of the appositive noun. We are allowed to say, indeed,

the rifle is my friend's, the hunter's;

but the expression seems awkward to us, and we prefer to say the same thing in some other way: as,

it belongs to my friend, the hunter.

Or, we put the sign of the possessive case only on the last noun (see **138**): thus,

my friend the hunter's rifle.

It is useless, then, to add any rule about agreement.

[See Exercise XVI., at the end of the chapter.]

ADVERB.

380. As the adjective is the usual qualifier of the noun, so the adverb is the usual qualifier of the other member of the simple sentence, the verb.

Adverbs qualify verbs in all the variety of meaning that belongs to them, but without any difference of relation (like that of the predicative and attributive relation in the adjective) which is of importance enough to be distinguished and defined.

381. Adverbs (as we have already seen, **41–2, 308–9**) qualify also adjectives, and sometimes other adverbs.

There are even cases in which an adverb qualifies a preposition: thus,

a result far beyond his hopes;
he jumped clear over the wall;
a nail driven deep into the wood.

Such cases shade off into those in which the qualifying word is no proper adverb, but an adjective belonging to the noun, to which the prepositional phrase is added.

382. An adverb is quite often used with the value of a predicate adjective: for example,

the sun is down, the moon is up, and the stars are all out;
he was there, but you were away.

And the adverb **so** is much used as substitute for adjectives as well as other parts of speech, to avoid repetition: see **493**. For example,

his step was light, for his heart was so.

Less often, as an appositive adjective: thus,

ask at the house next above; my stay there will be short; the wall within and that without.

Sometimes (and less properly), even as an attributive adjective: thus,

the above passage; the then ruler;
my sometime friend; his almost impudence of manner.

As to the use of an adverb with the value of a noun, as object of a preposition, see **322**.

383. We have, then, the rules:

XI. An *adverb* qualifies a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.

XII. An adverb is sometimes used with the value of an adjective, especially of a predicate adjective.

[See Exercise XVII., at the end of the chapter.]

GENITIVE OR POSSESSIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

384. We have seen (**68** etc.) that English nouns and pronouns have an inflectional form which is called their GENITIVE or POSSESSIVE case: thus,

John's from **John**; **man's** from **man**;
men's from **men**; **his** from **he**;
their or **theirs** from **they**;

and that the case is usually called "possessive" because it is especially used, in connection with another noun, to point out the possessor of whatever that noun signifies, the person or thing to which it belongs.

For example, if a book has John for its owner, we call it **John's book**; a crown belonging to the king is the **king's crown**; and, in a more figurative way, the doings that belong to a certain day are called that **day's doings**. If a man has debts,

we call them **his debts**; the act performed by him is **his act**; the faults he has committed are **his faults**; and so on.

385. The ***possessive*** use of this case, its use as a genitive of *possession* or appurtenance (taking these words in a somewhat wide and loose sense), is by far the most common of all in English; but there are two or three others which call for notice.

a. If the qualified noun signifies some action or condition of which, if it were expressed by a verb, the noun in the genitive would be the *subject*, the case is called a SUBJECTIVE genitive.

Thus, in

a mother's love, Troy's fall, the bugle's sound,
Cæsar's passage of the Rubicon,

is implied that

the mother loves, Troy has fallen, the bugle sounds,
Cæsar passed the Rubicon.

b. If, on the other hand, the genitive would be the *object* of the action expressed by the other noun in verb-form, we call it an OBJECTIVE genitive.

Thus, in

earth's creator, sin's rebuke, his murder,

it is implied that some one

created earth, rebuked sin, murdered him.

The objective genitive is much less common in English than the subjective.

c. Once more, if the relation of the two nouns is logically that of *apposition*, and might also be so expressed, the case is called an APPOSITIVE genitive: thus,

Britain's isle; Numidia's spacious kingdom.

The appositive genitive is now almost obsolete, but it occurs sometimes in poetry.

386. In this way, a noun in its possessive case-form becomes a qualifying, or descriptive, or limiting addition to another noun, much as if it were an attributive adjective. Often we can put an adjective in place of the possessive, with little or no difference of meaning: thus,

the king's crown, the day's doings, man's imperfections,

may also be described as

the royal crown, the daily doings, human imperfections.

And we saw above (**165, 205**) that the possessive cases of the personal pronouns, especially, are not to be sharply distinguished from adjectives.

Though the English possessive is the genitive of older English and of the other related languages, it is peculiar in this respect: that whereas the genitive was used also with verbs and adjectives, or adverbially, our present possessive has only an adjective value, or is used ***adnominally*** — that is, as 'added to a noun,' or qualifying a noun.

387. The possessive is said to be ***dependent on*** the noun which it describes, or to be ***governed*** by it: that is to say, the qualifying noun is as it were *required* or compelled by its relation to the other to take the possessive case-form.

388. The possessive, with the noun on which it is dependent omitted, is also used in the various other constructions of the adjective.

Thus, as simple predicate:

the book is John's; that crown is the king's;

as objective predicate:

I made the book his;

in apposition:

that crown, the king's, is set with jewels.

Also, like an adjective used as a noun: thus,

he and his are all well; John's book lies by Harry's.

And the possessive, standing for 'such a one's property or belongings,' has come to be used with a preceding **of**, in the sense of 'belonging to such a one,' being put, like an appositive adjective, after the noun it qualifies: thus,

this boy is a friend of mine; a servant of my brother's; that wife of his;

that is, 'a friend belonging to me,' or 'one of my friends,' and so on.

389. Thus we have the rule:

XIII. The *genitive* or *possessive* case of a noun (or pronoun) is used to qualify or limit another noun, in the manner of an adjective.

[See Exercise XVIII., at the end of the chapter.]

ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE CASE OF NOUNS.

390. While, as we have just seen, our noun has a special case-form, the possessive, for adjective use, or as quali-

fying a noun, it is also sometimes used, without any special case-form, in the manner of an adverb: that is to say, to qualify a verb, or an adjective, or even an adverb.

Examples are as follows. With verbs:

they walked a mile; he sat an hour;
our friend died last night; it fell a long distance;
it faces both ways.

With adjectives:

the river is a mile broad here;
a sermon two hours long;
a field three acres larger than another.

With adverbs:

he lives a long distance off;
his house is a great deal better built;
you should have come an hour sooner;
it will be all the same a hundred years hence;
they watched all night long.

391. As we do not use the pronouns in this way, and as our nouns never have different forms in the nominative and objective, there is nothing in our language to show that the case thus used is really the objective. But this appears from the usage in older English and in other languages; and we might also infer it from the fact that we often use a preposition to connect such a noun with the word which it qualifies: thus,

he sat for an hour; it faces in both directions;
larger by three acres.

We may best call this use of the noun, therefore, an ADVERBIAL OBJECTIVE: that is, an objective case used with the value of an adverb.

392. It is plain enough that, for example, in

he walked a mile,

the noun **mile** is in no proper sense the object of the verb **walked**, and that the verb is intransitive, as usual.

Yet, in such sentences, the adverbial objective sometimes so far assumes the character of an object that we turn it into the subject of a passive phrase (as we also sometimes do an indirect object: see 305): thus,

the mile was walked by him in twelve minutes.

We may distinguish a word thus used by calling it an ADVERBIAL OBJECT.

393. The adverbial objective is used especially to express *measure;* whether duration of time, or extent of distance or space, or weight, or number, or age, or value, and the like. But it also expresses the *time* at which anything happened; and, much more rarely, *manner*, as in

have it your own way; he came full speed.

Now and then, such an objective is added to a noun, with adjective value: thus,

my dream last night; his adventures this day.

394. We have, then, the rule:

XIV. A noun expressing measure or time is sometimes used in the *objective* case with an *adverbial* value, or to qualify a verb, or adjective, or adverb.

NOUN USED ABSOLUTELY.

395. There is yet another way in which a noun (or pronoun) is sometimes made to describe or qualify something in a sentence, without having its relation to what it qualifies denoted either by a case-form or by a connecting word. Thus, we say

he lay down, his heart heavy with sorrow;
he flies, wild terror in his look;
they charged, sword in hand and visor down;
they sit side by side;
the mountain rose, height above height.

A word thus used always has added to it an appositive adjective (**376**), or a word or phrase of some kind (an adverb, a prepositional phrase, etc.) having the same value. And the two together answer the purpose of an accompanying trait or circumstance added to the sentence (generally in the manner of an

adverbial predicate: see **355**). It is as if **with** or **having**, or a conjunction and the verb **be**, or something of the kind, which might have been used, were omitted: thus,

he lay down, having a heart heavy etc.;
or **he lay down, while his heart was heavy** etc.;
he flies with wild terror in his look;
or **he flies, and wild terror is in his look.**

396. Such a word is said to be used ABSOLUTELY, or to be in ABSOLUTE construction, because it appears to stand as if 'cut loose' from the sentence to which it belongs, the usual sign of relation to the words it qualifies being wanting.

The absolute construction is especially common with a participle qualifying the noun or pronoun (see below, **461**); and the construction of the pronoun, which is very rare except with a participle, shows that the case used is regularly the nominative.

397. Thus we have the rule:

XV. A noun or pronoun, along with an appositive adjective or its equivalent, is sometimes used in the nominative case *absolutely*, in the manner of an adverb, to express some accompanying circumstance or condition of the action.

[See Exercise XIX., at the end of the chapter.]

PREPOSITIONAL PHRASES.

398. A preposition we have seen (**44-6, 319**) to be a connecting word by means of which a noun or pronoun is attached to another word, and made to limit or qualify it in some way which the preposition defines.

And the noun or pronoun thus attached to another word by the preposition is called the ***object*** of the preposition, or is said to be ***governed by*** or ***dependent on*** it, and is put in the objective case (**320**).

399. The relations expressed by the prepositions are most like those expressed by the cases of the noun: thus, the relation of the dative-objective (**364-6**) may always be expressed

by the prepositions **to** or **for**, and that of the possessive by **of** (**69**). And some languages have other case-forms to express other relations, which we express by prepositions only: for example, by **from** ("ablative" case), and **in** ("locative" case), and **with** ("instrumental" case).

400. The preposition and the word which it governs form together what is called a PREPOSITIONAL PHRASE. Such a phrase has a value in the sentence resembling that of the two qualifying or limiting (**43**) parts of speech, the adjective and the adverb; and it is to be estimated and named according to this value.

401. If the word to which the noun or pronoun is attached by the governing preposition is a noun, then the prepositional phrase has the value of an adjective, limiting or describing that noun.

Often it may be (like the possessive case: **386**) replaced by an adjective. Thus, for

a house of wood, **a man of truth,**
an emigrant from Ireland, **a residence in the suburbs,**
an animal with two feet,

we may say

a wooden house, **a truthful man,**
an Irish emigrant, **a suburban residence,**
a biped animal,

and so on.

The prepositional phrase, when it thus does the duty of an adjective in qualifying a noun, is called a prepositional adjective phrase, or, briefly, an ADJECTIVE-PHRASE.

Such a phrase may be used in all the various constructions in which an adjective is used: thus, as predicate, simple or objective:

his house is in the city; **he seemed out of humor;**
they danced themselves out of breath;

with a noun used absolutely:

their minds at ease, they departed.

402. On the other hand, if the word to which the noun or pronoun is attached by the preposition is a verb or adjective or adverb, the value of the phrase is that of an adverb, and it is called an ADVERB-PHRASE.

Here, also, we may often substitute for the adverb-phrase a simple adverb. Thus, for

it burned to the ground, it mounted in the air,
he spoke with anger,

we may say

it burned down, it mounted aloft,
he spoke angrily.

In fact, we may readily substitute for almost any adverb an adverbial phrase, made up of preposition and noun, often with an adjective qualifying the noun : thus,

there is **in that place**; **now** is **at this time**;
hastily is **with haste**, or **in a hasty manner**;

and so on.

Many prepositional adverb-phrases have assumed such a stereotyped form that the words are hardly to be taken apart and parsed separately : thus, for example,

on board, on fire, at hand, out of doors, on the whole, for the present;

and we saw above (**315**) that such phrases are sometimes made of a preposition and adjective : as,

in vain, for long, at present;

and also (**313 f**), that many adverbs are formed by fusing together the words of such phrases : as,

abreast, afire, anew, abroad, besides, below, outdoors, beforehand, to-day, overboard.

403. We have already seen (**322**) that an adverb-phrase, like an adverb, sometimes takes the place of a noun as object of a preposition : for example,

he went from here, he came from beyond the sea.

404. We have, then, the following rules as to the use of prepositions :

XVI. A preposition forms with its object either an *adjective-phrase*, qualifying a noun, or an *adverb-phrase*, qualifying a verb or adjective or adverb.

XVII. The object of a preposition (if a noun or pronoun) is in the objective case.

[See Exercise XX., at the end of the chapter.]

405. We have now gone through with the parts of speech which combine with one another to form simple sentences, and have noticed the ways in which their combinations are made.

In these ways, the necessary elements of the sentence, the bare subject and predicate, are extended and filled up so as to express a thought in a more complete and detailed manner.

406. We may sum up the processes of combination as follows (in these statements, for brevity's sake, we treat the pronoun as included along with the noun):

a. The original elements of the sentence are the subject-noun and the verb.

b. The meaning of the verb may be filled out by an object-noun; also, by a predicate adjective or noun (qualifying either the subject or the object); or it may be modified by an adverb.

c. A noun in any construction in the sentence may be qualified by an adjective; an adjective, by an adverb; an adverb, by another adverb.

d. A noun may be made to qualify another noun, adjectively, by being put in the possessive case, or by being joined to the other noun by a preposition; it may be made to qualify a verb or adjective or adverb, adverbially, sometimes in the objective case simply, but usually by means of a preposition.

The "absolute" construction (**395**) of a noun with an appositive adjunct is here left unnoticed, as being less common, and apart from the ordinary processes of sentence-making. Also, the compounding of the various elements of a sentence by means of conjunctions (**327**), because this is a kind of ***abbreviation***, and will be treated of in a later place (Chapter XVII.).

407. The words and phrases thus added to the subject-noun, or bare subject, and to the verb, or bare predicate, are, in either case, called its QUALIFIERS, or MODIFIERS, or ADJUNCTS; or, collectively, its COMPLEMENT. And the bare subject or predicate along with its adjuncts or modifiers is called the COMPLETE subject or predicate.

Some prefer to speak of the subject as "extended" or "enlarged," and of the predicate as "completed," by the additions made to each respectively; and hence, to call the whole subject the "enlarged" or "extended" subject, and to call only the predicate "completed" or "complete"; but the distinction is not of consequence enough to be worth making.

408. A SIMPLE SENTENCE is one which is made up of one subject and of one predicate, however many words either of them may contain.

409. In the ways described above, the simple sentence is, in theory, capable of being drawn out and filled up to any extent — made a whole page long, for instance. But, in practice, the length of a sentence is kept within limits by the fear of becoming awkward and lumbering, or even unintelligible. We put what we have to say, by preference, into a series of briefer sentences, separate statements. And the relation of these separate statements to one another we often determine by means of connecting words.

410. The connecting words which determine the relation of sentences to one another are the conjunctions and the relative or conjunctive pronouns and pronominal adjectives. These bind together simple sentences more or less completely into a whole. Combinations of simple sentences made in this way are called compound and complex sentences: and we have next to take up and explain such sentences.

EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE

IN THE CONSTRUCTIONS INVOLVED IN THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

The simpler and more common constructions have in general had illustration enough, in the exercises to the preceding chapters. The exercises that follow are meant especially to show the rarer and more exceptional combinations which are treated of in this chapter.

XIII. Impersonal, Collective, and Compound Subjects: § 348.

It dawns; will it never be day?

How far is it, my lord, to Berkley now?

Nearly one half of the inhabitants were assembled, and nearly the other half were engaged in a more peaceful duty.

The army of the queen mean to besiege us.

'T was Pentecost, the feast of gladness.

Havoc and spoil and ruin are my gain.

The world has all its eyes on Cato's son.

But by the yellow Tiber was tumult and affright.

And now the foe their covert quit.

It was the deep mid-noon.

The liberality and gratitude of the Normans were remarkable.

My quarrel and the English queen's are one.

A land where Nature, Freedom, Art smile hand in hand.

The weary crew their vessel kept.

XIV. Predicate Noun and Adjective; Adverbial Predicate: §§ 350–7.

Hope springs eternal in the human breast.

All looks yellow to the jaundiced eye.

Man became a living soul.

The time turns torment, when man turns a fool.

The judicious are always a minority.

With him lay dead both hope and pride.

How come you thus estranged?

This act shows terrible and grim.

Open fly the infernal doors.

Men may live fools, but fools they cannot die.

The harvest truly is plenteous, but the laborers are few.

James was declared a mortal and bloody enemy, a tyrant, a murderer, and a usurper.

The temptation had proved irresistible.

That Louis who was styled the father of his people.
How remarkably heavy it is! it feels heavier than usual.
Some are born great.
A French king was brought prisoner to London.
Now I have found him; and thou art he.

Now is the winter of our discontent
Made glorious summer by this sun of York.

The work of each immortal bard appears
The single wonder of a thousand years.

She would make a better heroine than Clelia.
The fiend lies stretched out, huge in length.
She stood silent, as the heralds pressed her hand.
The fog came pouring in at every chink and keyhole.
His silence will sit drooping.
My wedding-bell rings merry in my ear.

XV. Objects of the Verb; Objective Predicate: §§ 358-71.

The objective predicate word may be described as qualifying (or, if a noun, as relating to and describing) such and such a noun or pronoun, as objective predicate, being brought into connection with it by such and such a verb, of which it (the noun or pronoun) is the direct object.

I'll leave my son my virtuous deeds behind.
Now call me the chief of the harem-guard.
He wrought the castle much annoy.
I mean you no harm.
He gives his parents no tremulous anxiety.
An inauspicious office is enjoined thee.
We could raise you five hundred soldiers.
Ask me no questions, and I'll tell you no fibs.

Grant me still a friend in my retreat,
Whom I may whisper, "Solitude is sweet!"

Merry elves, their morrice pacing,
Trip it deft and merrily.

She sweeps it through the court with troops of ladies.
We can walk it perfectly well; we want no coach to carry us now.
The gale had sighed itself to rest.
He sighed a sigh, and prayed a prayer.

Death grinned horrible a ghastly smile.
We will kiss sweet kisses.
From them I go this uncouth errand sole.
Cradles rock us nearer to the tomb.
Perseverance keeps honor bright.
All men think all men mortal but themselves.
He hides his own offences, and strips others' bare.
One touch of nature makes the whole world kin.
You think him humble; God accounts him proud.
The shower has left the myrtles and the violet-bank so fresh.
Sooner shall they drink the ocean dry.
I warrant him a warrior tried.
I must not see thee Osman's bride.
Heaven's blest beam turns vinegar more sour.
They found the language a barbarous jargon.
Even silent night proclaims my soul immortal.
Attention held them mute.

XVI. Attributive and Appositive Adjective and Noun: §§ 372–9.

We may describe the appositive noun as in apposition with such and such a noun (or pronoun), being added to it in order further to designate the same thing; and the appositive adjective in a similar manner.

History is philosophy teaching by examples.

Without the assistance of these works, indeed, a revolution could have taken place — a revolution productive of much good and much evil; tremendous but short-lived evil; dearly purchased but durable good.

Learning, that cobweb of the brain.

Ardent and intrepid on the field of battle, Monmouth was everywhere else effeminate and irresolute.

I found the urchin Cupid sleeping.

On him, their second Providence, they hung.

Sister Livy is married to farmer Williams.

They sang Darius, good and great,
By too severe a fate
Fallen from his high estate,
And weltering in his blood.

Truth, crushed to earth, shall rise again;
But Error, wounded, writhes with pain, and dies.

Amazed, confused, he found his power expired.
Now the herald lark left his ground nest.

The daughter of a hundred earls,
You are not one to be desired.

Now the bright morning star, day's harbinger,
Comes dancing from the East.

They all, with one consent, began to make excuse.
Enthusiastically attached to the name of liberty, these historians troubled themselves little about its definition.
Superfluous lags the veteran on the stage.

Volumed, and vast, and rolling far,
The cloud enveloped Scotland's war.

Raw in fields, the rude militia swarms;
Mouths without hands, maintained at vast expense,
In peace a charge, in war a weak defence;
Stout, once a month they march, a blustering band,
And ever, but in times of need, at hand.

XVII. Adverbs: §§ 380–3.

The ordinary constructions of the adverb have been abundantly exemplified in the exercises already given.

But close around the body no cries were heard.
The mighty wreck lay right athwart the stream.
Here was the chair of state, having directly over it a rich canopy.
The price of a virtuous woman is far above rubies.
He is above, sir, changing his dress.
The feast was over in Branksome tower.
His father left him well off.
My son is either married, or going to be so.
I have forgot my part, and I am out.

His right arm is bare;
So is the blade of his scimitar.

Out steps, with cautious foot and slow,
And quick, keen glances to and fro,
The outlaw.

I pray thee by the gods above.
On my way hither, I saw her come forth.
Tarry till his return home.
It is the signal of our friends within.

My tongue cannot impart
My almost drunkenness of heart.

Our then dictator saw him fight.
Use a little wine for thine often infirmities.

XVIII. Possessive Case and Possessives: §§ 384–9.

The earth is the Lord's.
Thou art freedom's now, and fame's.
That is madam Lucy, my master's mistress's maid.
I don't choose a hornet's nest about my ears.
The lieutenant's last day's march is over.
The power which brought you here hath made you mine.

Five times outlawed had he been,
By England's king and Scotland's queen.

I knew myself only as his, his daughter, his the mighty.
My life is my foe's debt.
Winter's rude tempests are gathering now.
Shall Rome stand under one man's awe?
His beard was of several days' growth.
Do not name Silvia thine.
The blind old man of Scio's rocky isle.
Man's life is cheap as beast's.

I will listen to your song,
Soft as the soft complaining nightingale's.

I was taken to a new toy of his and the squire's, which he termed the falconry.

Letters came last night to a dear friend of the good duke of York's.

This toil of ours should be a work of thine.

XIX. Adverbial Objective and Nominative Absolute: §§ 390–7.

The following sentence will furnish examples of parsing:

he | waited an hour, staff in hand.

In this sentence, the nouns **hour** and **staff** are to be described as hitherto, in regard to *kind* and *form;* and their *construction* is to be defined in some such way as this: **hour** is an adverbial objective, added to the verb **waited** to point out *how long* the waiting was; **staff** is in the nominative absolute, being used along with its adjunct **in hand** to express a circumstance accompanying the act of waiting — as if it were "he waited *with* a staff in his hand."

Cowards die many times before their deaths.
The duke will not draw back a single inch.
His hoary head conspicuous many a league.
I 'll make you ogle her all day.
Thus have I been twenty years in thy house.
The bird of dawning singeth all night long.
Tenderly her blue eyes glistened long time ago.
This day will I begin to magnify thee.
Five times every year he was to be exposed in the pillory.
Something wicked this way comes.

Seamen, with the self-same gale,
Will several different courses sail.

I was born
Not three hours' travel from this very place.

One morn, a Peri at the gate
Of Eden stood, disconsolate.

From morn
Till noon he fell, from noon to dewy eve,
A summer's day.

The last impossible, he fears the first.
The rest must perish, their great leader slain.

He left my side,
A summer bloom on his fair cheeks, a smile
Parting his innocent lips.

There she stands,
An empty urn within her withered hands.

Each in his narrow cell forever laid,
The rude forefathers of the hamlet sleep.

The foe and the stranger will tread o'er his head,
And we far away on the billow.

Fast as shaft can fly,
Blood-shot his eye, his nostrils spread,
The loose rein dangling from his head,
Housing and saddle bloody red,
Lord Marmion's steed rushed by.

All loose her negligent attire,
All loose her golden hair,
Hung Margaret o'er her slaughtered sire.

Fire in each eye, and papers in each hand,
They rave, recite, and madden round the land.

The ruffian who, with ghostly glide,
Dagger in hand, steals close to your bedside.

XX. Prepositional Phrases: §§ 398–404.

How to parse the preposition and its object as separate words has been already abundantly illustrated in previous exercises. The definition of the two together as a phrase has now to be added; and the construction of the phrase is to be stated, in the same manner as that of the simple part of speech to which the phrase is equivalent.

A few additional examples for practice are given here.

And every shepherd tells his tale
Under the hawthorn in the dale.

From peak to peak, the rattling crags among,
Leaps the live thunder.

Hands of invisible spirits touch the strings
Of that mysterious instrument, the soul.

There was shedding of blood and rending of hair.

Why to frenzy fly for refuge from the blessings we possess?

These are suggestions of a mind at ease.

That is all the difference between them.

All the triumphs of truth and genius over prejudice and power, in every country and in every age, have been the triumphs of Athens.

By an exclusive attention to one class of phenomena, by an exclusive taste for one species of excellence, the human intellect was stunted.

We take no note of time, but from its loss.

We ne'er can reach the inward man,
Or inward woman, from without.

The time 'twixt six and now
Must by us both be spent most preciously.

Shriller shrieks now mingling come
From within the plundered dome.

Till then, in blood by noble Percy lie.

Other ways exist besides through me.

I chanced upon the prettiest oddest fantastical thing of a dream the other night.

She shall be our messenger to this paltry knight.

The gale had sighed itself to rest.

CHAPTER XIV.

COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

411. We saw in the last chapter how a sentence, while still remaining simple, could be filled up and made more completely expressive of a thought by expanding its subject or its predicate, or both — that is, by adding to them a variety of modifying words or phrases, according to certain regular methods of combination.

412. But there are also ways by which we put together simple sentences, each having its own subject and predicate, and make of them a kind of whole, a longer and more intricate sentence. If we say, for example,

they spoke and we listened; they spoke but we listened;
they spoke while we listened; we listened while they spoke;
we listened to what they spoke;

there are in each case two subject-pronouns, **they** and **we,** and each of these has its own predicate-verb, **spoke** and **listened.** The assertions or statements are therefore two. But we have used between them certain connecting words, which so unite them that they may be looked upon as after all forming only one sentence.

A sentence thus composed is no longer ***simple;*** it is either ***compound*** or ***complex*** (or both together). And we have in this chapter to see what such sentences are, and how they are made.

413. As (**409**) we do not like to make a simple sentence too long and intricate, so, on the other hand, we do not like

to make our simple sentences too bare, or to limit ourselves to simple sentences. To say

they spoke: we listened,

might, with the help of circumstances, be understood to mean the same with any of those sentences given in the preceding paragraph, the mind inferring each time what the relation was between the two acts. We join them together with connectives, partly in order to make the relation more plainly and surely understood, partly because a succession of bare phrases would sound to us jerky and ungraceful.

414. We could, if we chose, put all that we have to say into little separate sentences.

Thus, for example:

I awoke one day. It was last week. It was six o'clock. I got up at once. I dressed myself. The sun was up. It was hidden by clouds. The morning was not very light. I walked into the garden. The grass was still wet. The bushes were still wet. The dew lay upon them. I saw a bird. The bird lay on the ground. It could not fly. It was wounded. Some one had hit it with a stone. I picked the bird up. I brought it into the house. I put it into a cage. I fed it. I tended it. It got well. I released it. It flew away.

The connection of all this is clear enough, though there are no connecting words to point it out. But it sounds very badly. No one writes or talks in that way — unless sometimes for very young children, who have not yet grown familiar enough with language to make or to understand longer combinations of words. For the use of people in general, we work it into better shape by combining the little sentences with connectives; by their aid, also, getting rid of unnecessary repetitions. For example:

I awoke at six o'clock one day last week, and at once got up and dressed myself. The morning was not very light; for, though the sun was up, it was hidden by clouds. As I walked out into

the garden, where the grass and bushes were still wet with the dew that lay upon them, I saw a bird lying on the ground. It could not fly, because some one had wounded it with a stone. I picked the bird up and brought it into the house, put it into a cage, and fed and tended it until it got well; when I released it, and it flew away.

[See Exercise XXI., at the end of the chapter.]

415. The connecting words which bind sentences together into one are the conjunctions, and the relative pronouns (**174** etc.) and relative pronominal adjectives (**210**), which are also called "conjunctive" (**175**, end), because they thus do the duty of conjunctions.

A sentence which is joined with other sentences to make a larger sentence is called a CLAUSE.

A clause is like a ***phrase*** (**280**) in being a combination of words that often (**423**) performs the office of a single word, a part of speech; but it differs in containing a subject and a predicate, and so being really a sentence by itself.

416. The combination of clauses into sentences is of two degrees, one closer and the other less close. In the latter case, the clauses are put side by side and loosely tied together, as it were, each keeping its own value as an independent assertion; in the former case, one clause is made a part or member of another, or becomes ***dependent*** on it.

A few examples will make this distinction clearer.

417. If we say, for example,

I awoke, and I got up at once;
the sun was up, but it was hidden by clouds;
the bird was shot, or some one had struck it;
it was dark, for the sun was hidden;

each little sentence or clause, though joined on to another, has the value of a separate assertion in the larger sentence.

Such clauses are called INDEPENDENT (or PRINCIPAL: that is, 'of first rank').

With relation to one another, again, they are called CO-ORDINATE: that is, 'of equal *order* or rank.'

418. The conjunctions which join clauses in this way, leaving to each its own original character, not making either dependent on the other, are called (**328** etc.) the ***co-ordinating conjunctions.***

419. A sentence which is made up (like those above, **417**) of two or more independent clauses is called a COMPOUND sentence.

But two or more independent clauses may be so connected in sense as to be regarded as parts of one sentence, even though they are not joined by conjunctions: thus,

I cannot go; my time is not up.

And, on the other hand, we often put a simple connective, especially **and** or **but**, at the beginning of a separate sentence, or even of a paragraph, to point out in a general way its relation to what precedes. Thus there is no absolute distinction between the sentence and the clause.

[See Exercise XXII., at the end of the chapter.]

420. If, on the other hand, we say

when I awoke, I got up,

the combination is of another kind. Here the only real assertion is that **I got up**; the clause **when I awoke** is a definition of the time of my getting up; it means the same as the adverb-phrase **on waking**; it is used as if it were an adverb of time qualifying the verb **got up.**

If, again, we say

it could not fly because it was wounded,

the second clause has here also the value of an adverb qualifying **could not fly,** like the adverb-phrase **on account of its wound.**

421. Yet again, if we say

the bird which I saw could not fly,

the only assertion is that **the bird could not fly**; the clause **which I saw** does nothing more than define or

describe **the bird,** just as an adjective would do. It has the value, therefore, of an adjective, and can easily be turned into an adjective form: thus,

the bird seen by me.

Indeed, we have seen (175) that every adjective qualifying a noun (attributively or appositively) may be turned into such an adjective clause: thus,

a good man, a whipped dog,

are the same as

a man who is good, a dog that has been whipped,

and so on.

422. Once more, if we say

what lay there was a bird,

the assertion is simply that a certain thing was a bird, and the thing is defined or named as being **what lay there.** The predicate-verb **was** has no other subject than **what lay there.** And these words are equivalent to **the thing lying there** — a noun with an adjective describing it.

So in

I saw that it was a bird;

I did not know whether it was a bird;

the clauses **that it was a bird** and **whether it was a bird** define or name the thing seen and the thing not known; they are just as much the objects of **saw** and **did not know** as **the bird** and **anything** are in the sentences

I saw the bird; I did not know anything.

And in

I went up to where it lay,

the clause **where it lay** is just as much the object of the preposition **to** as **the house** is in

I went up to the house.

Now all these — being subject or object of a verb, or object of a preposition — are constructions belonging to nouns; and clauses thus used have the value of nouns in the sentences of which they form a part.

423. When a clause is thus made to play the part of a word, a single part of speech, in another clause, it is said to be ***dependent*** on that other, or to be ***subordinated*** to it (that is, to be 'put in an inferior *order* or rank' with reference to it); and it is called a DEPENDENT clause (or a SUBORDINATE, or an ACCESSORY clause).

And, according to the part it plays, a dependent clause is called an ADVERB-CLAUSE, an ADJECTIVE-CLAUSE, or a SUBSTANTIVE-CLAUSE.

Thus we have all the principal parts of speech (not the connectives) represented by clauses, except the verb — and, of course, the pronoun, which is itself only a substitute for a noun.

There can be no such thing as a verb-clause, because a verb has no other office than that of making a clause or sentence.

A phrase like

as regards,

which is abbreviated from

so far as it regards,

may even be said to have the value of a preposition, or preposition-phrase — 'concerning,' or 'in respect to.'

424. A sentence which contains as one of its members a dependent clause is called a COMPLEX sentence: by this is meant that its parts are more 'woven together,' made into one, than those of the "compound" sentence.

[See Exercise XXIII., at the end of the chapter.]

425. A complex sentence may also contain more than one dependent clause.

These may be of different kinds, and unconnected with one another: thus,

what lay there was, if I saw aright, a bird which could not fly.

Or, a dependent clause may have another clause dependent on itself, and this again another, and so on: for example,

I went into the garden where the grass was wet with the dew that lay upon it;

this is the dog that worried the cat that killed the rat that ate the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

Or, two or more dependent clauses of the same kind may have the same construction in a sentence, being joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions: thus,

a bird that lay on the ground and that could not fly;
it could not fly because it had been shot or it had been hit with a stone;
I saw that the bird was wounded and that it could not fly.

Dependent clauses, as well as independent ones (**417**), are called co-ordinate when thus joined, and having a like office, since *co-ordinate* simply means 'having the same rank with one another.'

426. A compound sentence, moreover, may be made by joining together, instead of simple sentences, complex ones, or simple and complex ones. Such a sentence is called COMPOUND-COMPLEX.

427. In these ways, sentences of very great length and complexity are sometimes made. In theory, there is no limit to the extent to which a sentence may be compounded and made complex by the combination of clauses. But in practice (just as in the case of the extension of the simple sentence: **409**) a limit is set by the fear of becoming burdensome or unintelligible.

In different styles of writing, and in the practice of different authors, the variety as regards the general simplicity or complexity of the structure of sentences is very great.

[See Exercise XXIV., at the end of the chapter.]

428. We may sum up what has been said of sentences otherwise than simple in the following definitions and rules:

XVIII. A sentence which forms a part of a more comprehensive sentence is called a *clause*.

XIX. A clause is either independent or dependent: *independent*, if it forms an assertion by itself; *dependent*, if

it enters into some other clause with the value of a part of speech: namely, of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

XX. Clauses are *co-ordinate* if they are of the same rank with one another: either as being alike independent, or as being alike dependent, with the same construction.

XXI. A sentence is *compound*, if made up of independent clauses; *complex*, if it contains a dependent clause, or more than one; *compound-complex*, if one or more of its independent clauses is complex.

XXII. Co-ordinate clauses, whether independent or dependent, are usually joined together by co-ordinating conjunctions.

XXIII. A dependent clause is joined to the clause (independent or dependent) on which it depends, or of which it forms a part, by a subordinating conjunction, or by a relative pronoun or adjective.

XXIV. A dependent clause is named from its office in the sentence of which it forms a part: it is a substantive, or an adjective, or an adverb clause.

XXV. A *substantive-clause* is one which performs the office of a noun: being the subject or object of a verb, the object of a preposition, and so on.

XXVI. An *adjective-clause* is one which performs the office of an adjective, by describing or qualifying a noun.

XXVII. An *adverb-clause* is one that performs the office of an adverb, by qualifying a verb, or adjective, or adverb.

A few more detailed statements as to the three different kinds of dependent clauses need to be added here.

ADJECTIVE-CLAUSES.

429. Of the dependent clauses, the adjective-clause is simplest in its construction. It is always the equivalent of an attributive or appositive adjective, and regularly and usually follows the noun or pronoun which it qualifies.

430. The adjective-clause is introduced either by a relative pronoun, or else by such a conjunction as may also be called a relative adverb (**313 e, 331**): namely,

where, whence, whither, when, why.

Each of these last is equivalent to a relative pronoun with a preposition governing it.

Thus,

he whom thou lovest is sick;
the horse that bore him is black;
the city where (= in which) **he lived;**
the country whence (= from which) **he came;**
the reason why (= for which) **he is here;**
the time when (= at which) **Rome was founded.**

[See Exercise XXV., at the end of the chapter.]

ADVERB-CLAUSES.

431. An adverb-clause usually qualifies a verb; much less often, an adjective; and (as is also the case with simple adverbs: **309**) an adverb rarely, except in the way of defining a degree.

432. The adverb-clause is introduced by a great variety of conjunctions, and it has the same variety of meanings which belong to simple adverbs (**311**).

Thus, we have adverb-clauses:

a. Of ***place:*** for example,

he lay where he fell;
whither I go, ye cannot come.

b. Of ***time:*** for example,

when I awoke, it was six o'clock;
make hay while the sun shines.

c. Of ***manner*** and ***degree:*** for example,

he does as he likes;
they are better than we had expected;
I am as tired as ever a man was.

d. Of ***cause:*** for example,

he retired because he could not help it;
cursed be I, that I did so;
since you say it, we believe it.

e. Of ***result*** or ***effect:*** for example,

he was so weak that he fell;
they shouted till the woods rang.

f. Of ***condition*** and ***concession:*** for example,

if you are honest, you will be respected;
unless I am mistaken, it was he;
he could not do it, though he tried hard.

g. Of ***end*** or ***purpose*** ("final clause"): for example,

he died that we might live;
ye shall not touch it, lest ye die.

This classification is not absolute: the different classes shade into one another; the same conjunction has a variety of offices; and a clause which literally means one thing is applied to quite another purpose — as the examples given above in part illustrate.

433. The conjunction introducing a clause often has a ***correlative*** adverb, of kindred meaning, in the clause on which this is dependent, answering toward it much the same purpose as the antecedent (**175**) to a relative: thus,

where the bee sucks, there suck I;
when the heart beats no more, then the life ends;
if I speak false, then may my father perish;
though he slay me, yet will I trust in him;
as I entered, so will I retire.

And adverbs of manner and degree are apt to be followed by correlative conjunctions; as **such** and **so** by **that**; **so** and **as** by **as**; a comparative adverb — **more, less,** and the like — by **than**; **the** (**313 e**) by **the.**

Out of this usage grow a number of conjunction-phrases, **as so as, so that, so far as, as good as, no sooner than, according as,** and so on.

[See Exercise XXVI., at the end of the chapter.]

SUBSTANTIVE-CLAUSES.

434. The substantive-clause has a great variety of constructions, corresponding with those of the noun to which it is equivalent.

Thus, the substantive-clause is used :

a. As subject of a verb : for example,

what they say is not to the point;
whether you go or stay is of little account;
that he is already gone disappoints us.

The frequent substitution of **it**, as grammatical subject, for a substantive-clause, has been noticed above : see **163 a.**

b. As object of a verb : for example,

I know not what I shall do; they saw that she was ill;
we considered whether it would answer;
he showed me where he had put it.

c. As predicate noun : for example,

he is precisely what he seems;
my home is wherever I am happy.

d. In apposition : for example,

the fact that it was done by him is apparent;
his letter is to the purport that he will soon arrive.

e. As object of a preposition : for example,

he traded with what capital he had;
you err in that you think so;
she is doing well, except that she cannot sleep.

f. A substantive-clause introduced by **that** (or, rarely, **lest**) is also often added directly to a verb or adjective or noun, where a noun would require a preposition to be used as connective : for example,

they insisted that we should stay;
we cherish the hope that he will return;
there is no need that she be present;
we are quite sorry that it is so;
he was afraid lest he should fall.

while we should say

insisted on his staying; hope of his return;
need of her presence; sorry for its being so;

and so with the rest.

This construction is most analogous with that of the ***adverbial objective*** (**390** etc.), or noun made adjunct to some other word without any sign of the relation between them being expressed.

Another similar case, of a substantive-clause used adverbially without a preposition, is seen in such sentences as

whoever may say it, I shall not believe it;
in whatever state I am, I am always content.

The complete expression, namely, is

whatever state I am in, I am always content with;

or, analyzing the indefinite compound relative into antecedent and relative,

content with any state in which I am.

Then, putting a pronoun *correlative* to the dependent clause in the independent clause (**433**), we have,

in whatever state I am, I am always content with it;

and the omission of the adverb-phrase **with it** gives the form as first stated.

In like manner,

however he may struggle, he cannot escape,
wherever he may be, he will be happy,

are equivalent to

he cannot escape by any way in which he may struggle;
he will be happy in any place in which he may be;

with the connectives **by** and **in** unexpressed.

On the other hand, not a few words which were formerly prepositions governing substantive clauses introduced by **that** have now come to be used, generally or always, directly as conjunctions (compare **331**), by the omission of **that**: for example,

after he had gone; **until he shall arrive;**
except he confess it;

while we may also say,

after that he had gone,

and so on.

435. The words which introduce a substantive clause are especially these:

a. The compound relative (**181**) pronouns and pronominal adjectives, with their corresponding adverbs: namely,

who (whose, whom), what, which;
when, where, whence, whither, why, how;
whoever, whosoever, whenever, etc.

When used with a simple relative meaning, all these words introduce adjective or adverb-clauses; but, by including also the "antecedent" of their relative part, they become equivalent to

the person who, the thing which,
the place in or from or to which,
the time at which, the reason for which,

and so on: that is, they imply a substantive word along with an adjective or adverbial adjunct. For example:

I heard what he said; I know why he said it;

are the same as

I heard the thing which he said;
I know the reason for which he said it.

b. The conjunction **whether**, expressing a doubt or alternative. **If** is sometimes, but less properly, used instead of it: thus,

I know not if it be so.

c. The conjunction **that** is (as the examples given above abundantly show) very common indeed as introducing substantive-clauses, in many different constructions. **Lest**, which has nearly the value of its negative, **that not**, is much less frequent.

[See Exercise XXVII., at the end of the chapter.]

436. In clauses of all kinds, the connective **that**, whether relative pronoun or conjunction, is very often omitted: thus,

it is strange they do not come; we saw he was there;
that is the reason I do not like him; I am sure it is so;
here is the book you were looking for;
he came the moment he heard it.

We have seen above (**434**, end) that, by the omission of **that**, words formerly prepositions have taken on the character of conjunctions; the same thing is sometimes true of other parts of speech: for example,

now he is here, the rest will soon follow;
once a beginning is made, the work is half done;
you shall have it, provided it pleases you;
in case we are beaten, we shall retire.

437. A relative word is not seldom used as a means of attaching something additional to a sentence, having nearly the value

of **and** with a personal or demonstrative pronoun or adverb: thus,

I gave him some bread, which he ate;
they passed the cup to the stranger, who drank heartily;
she carried it to the closet, where she stored it away.

Here **which he ate** is equivalent to **and he ate it**; and so in the other cases.

In this use, **which** sometimes has for its antecedent a clause instead of a word: thus,

he did not come, which I greatly regret.

[See Exercise XXVIII., at the end of the chapter.]

EXERCISES FOR PRACTICE

IN COMPOUND AND COMPLEX SENTENCES.

XXI. Combination and Separation of Sentences: §§ 412–4.

It is extremely useful for a class to be practised in taking apart compound and complex sentences into the separate simple statements of which they are made up, and in putting together simple statements into combined forms — and this, not with any reference to defining the grammatical character of the sentences, but simply to show the different shape which may be given in expression to what is substantially the same thing, and to impart a sense of the variety of style in composition. Material for such practice may be found abundantly in any work that the class are using; or it may be selected by the teacher; or it may be made up by pupils or teacher.

A few examples are added here:

Separate statement:

The boy had been called. He came at once.

Combined statement:

1. **The boy had been called, and came at once.**
2. **The boy, when he had been called, came at once.**
3. **The boy who had been called came at once.**

Separate statement:

A frog had seen an ox. She wanted to make herself as big as he. She attempted it. She burst asunder.

Combined statement:

1. A frog had seen an ox, and wanted to make herself as big as he; but when she attempted it, she burst asunder.

2. A frog that had seen an ox, and wanted to make herself as big as he, burst asunder when she attempted it.

3. When this frog burst asunder, she was wishing and attempting to make herself as big as an ox which she had seen.

4. Because a frog, when she had seen an ox, wanted to make herself as big as he, and attempted it, she burst asunder.

5. It is said that a frog, having seen an ox, wanted to make herself as big as he, and burst asunder in the attempt.

Separate statement, for various combination:

A crow stole a piece of cheese. It had lain in a cottage-window. She had discovered it there. She flew into a tree. The cheese was in her beak. A fox observed this. He came near. He sat under the tree. He began to praise the crow. He said this. "Your feathers are of a lovely color. I never saw any so beautiful. This is true. You have a fine shape. Your air is quite elegant. I never heard your voice. It must be sweet. I am sure of it. A melodious voice always goes along with such beauty. In that case no other bird can compare with you." The crow was delighted. She wriggled about on the branch. She put on graceful airs. She thought: "My voice is as fine as my feathers. I will show this to the fox." She opened her mouth. She was going to sing. The cheese dropped. The fox was watching for this. He caught the cheese. It had not yet touched the ground. He ran off with it to his hole. His family were there. They all ate it together. He told them the story. They laughed at the crow's silly vanity.

Combined statement, for separation and re-combination:

After a shepherd-boy, who kept his sheep upon a common where there was a dangerous wood hard by, and who was a mischief-loving fellow, had three or four times cried out "Wolf! wolf!" when there was no wolf coming, and so had cheated the husbandmen of the neighborhood, who would quit their work and run to help him, they all grew so distrustful of him that

once, when a wolf actually came and attacked him, they would not listen to his cries, but stayed quietly in their fields and gardens, till the flock was scattered and destroyed and the boy was torn to pieces, while he lamented his own folly, and exclaimed with his last breath that he who tells lies is only justly treated if he is not believed when he speaks the truth.

XXII. Compound Sentences: Independent Co-ordinate Clauses: §§ 415 – 9.

How to arrange such clauses, when written, so as best to illustrate their relation, was shown in connection with Exercise V. (p. 22). For example:

Knowledge | puffeth up,
but
charity | edifieth.

A little weeping would ease my heart;
But in their briny bed
My tears must stop, for every drop
Hinders needle and thread.

The mellow year is hasting to its close,
The little birds have almost sung their last;
Their small notes twitter in the dreary blast.

The dew was falling fast; the stars began to blink;
I heard a voice; it cried: Drink, pretty creature, drink!

Few and short were the prayers we said,
And we spake not a word of sorrow;
But we silently gazed on the face of the dead,
And we bitterly thought of the morrow.

Now sings the woodland loud and long;
The distance takes a lovelier hue;
And, drowned in yonder living blue,
The lark becomes a sightless song.

The cock is crowing; the stream is flowing;
The small birds twitter; the lake doth glitter;
The green field sleeps in the sun.

The vine still clings to the mouldering wall,
And at every gust the dead leaves fall.

The people are like the sea, and orators are like the wind.

A fool speaks all his mind, but a wise man reserves something for hereafter.

The king must win, or he must forfeit his crown forever.

This is not my fault; it is my destiny.

You shall not die; France needs you.

Faithful are the wounds of a friend, but the kisses of an enemy are deceitful.

This casket India's glowing gems unlocks,
And all Arabia breathes from yonder box.

XXIII. Complex Sentences (with one dependent clause): §§ **420–4.**

The clauses may be arranged, when written out, in the general manner already shown (Exercises V., X., pp. 22, 80, 81). But a dependent clause that belongs to and qualifies an individual word should be attached by its connective to that word. A substantive clause cannot always be conveniently treated in this way; it may be arranged instead in two lines, with the connective above. Examples are:

We | hear the { clock / that | tolls the hour.

We | hear the clock
as
It | tolls the hour.

That / it | has tolled | is certain.

I | do not know whether
it | has tolled.

He had a fever when he was in Spain.

Fools rush in where angels fear to tread.

Freely we serve, because we freely love.

Although we seldom followed advice, we were all ready enough to ask it.

If I were not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.

Even a fool, when he holdeth his peace, is counted wise.

If the hill will not come to Mahomet, Mahomet will go to the hill.

Uneasy lies the head that wears a crown.

The Danube to the Severn gave
The darkened heart that beat no more.

They ne'er pardon who have done the wrong.

He who would search for pearls must dive below.

The evil that men do lives after them.

He jests at scars who never felt a wound.

Whatever is, is right.

That you have wronged me appears in this.

All that I dread is leaving you behind.

Further examples, in greater abundance and variety, are given in Exercises XXV.–XXVII., below.

XXIV. Complex Sentences (with more than one dependent clause); Compound-complex Sentences: §§ 425–7.

It is possible to arrange all the clauses of an intricate sentence in such a way as to show their relations to one another; but the process becomes a burdensome one, and hard to carry out, when the sentence is protracted and involved — and especially if, as is very often the case, incomplete and abbreviated clauses (Chapter XVII.) are mingled with the others. If practice enough is given to impress clearly the modes of sentence-combination, nothing further is necessary; those cases may well be passed over, or written out in parts instead of as a whole, where a different treatment would be more confusing and embarrassing than helpful.

An example of more intricate combination is the following:

It was also true that the Earl of Lauderdale, who, both from his high talents and from the long imprisonment which he had sustained ever since the battle of Worcester, had a peculiar title to be consulted on Scottish affairs, strongly advised the king that he should suffer his northern subjects to retain possession of their darling form of worship.

It | was also true
that
the Earl of Lauderdale | strongly advised the king
that
he | should suffer his northern etc.
who | had both from his high talents
and from the long imprisonment } a peculiar title to be etc.
he | had sustained which } ever since the battle etc.

The Lord shall send upon thee cursing, until thou be destroyed, and until thou perish quickly.

We miss those hideous forms which make so striking a part of the description, and which Salvator Rosa would have loved to draw.

When faith is lost, when honor dies, the man is dead.

He that observeth the wind shall not sow; and he that regardeth the clouds shall not reap.

If thou be wise, thou shalt be wise for thyself; but if thou scornest, thou alone shalt bear it.

The very insects, as they sipped the dew that gemmed the tender grass of the meadows, joined in the joyous bridal song.

When they came to countries where the inhabitants were cowardly, they took possession of the land.

Events which, if they ever happened, happened in ages and nations so remote that the particulars never could have been

known to him, are related with the greatest minuteness of detail.

We cannot perceive that the study of grammar makes the smallest difference in the speech of people who have always lived in good society.

When the fit was on him, I did mark how he did shake.

We thought, as we hollowed his narrow bed
And smoothed down his lonely pillow,
How the foe and the stranger would tread o'er his head.

And what delights can equal those
That stir the spirit's inward deeps,
When one that loves, but knows not, reaps
A truth from one that loves and knows.

While we breathe beneath the sun,
The world, which credits what is done,
Is cold to all that might have been.

You all did see that, on the Lupercal,
I thrice presented him a kingly crown,
Which he did thrice refuse.

Much pleased was he to find
That, though on pleasure she was bent,
She had a frugal mind.

XXV. Adjective-clauses: §§ 429–30.

He that hath wife and children hath given hostages to fortune.

I tell you that which ye yourselves do know.

That life is long which answers life's great end.

He is the freeman, whom the truth makes free.

Those that think must govern those that toil.

I know a bank whereon the wild thyme blows.

It is the hour when lovers' vows
Seem sweet in every whispered word.

I am near to the place where they should meet.

I have shook off the regal thoughts wherewith I reigned.

We came unto the land whither thou sentest us.

The reason why the seven stars are no more than seven is a pretty reason.

That fearful moment when he left the cave, thy heart grew chill.

They never fail who die in a just cause.

A history in which every particular incident may be true may on the whole be false.

His praise is lost who stays till all commend.

For those that fly may fight again,
Which he can never do that 's slain.

That was he without whose life I had not been.

Thou shin'st in every tear that I do weep.

He had done that which could never be forgiven.

He may thank you for all that hath happened.

I would hear the voice which was my music.

A people whom I have not known shall serve me.

XXVI. Adverb-clauses: §§ 431–3.

Mammon wins his way where seraphs might despair.

Whither thou goest I will go; and where thou lodgest I will lodge.

Wheresoever the carcass is, there will the eagles be gathered together.

The blood will follow where the knife is driven;
The flesh will quiver where the pincers tear.

Hell trembled as he strode.

I must pause till it come back to me.

An idler is a watch that wants both hands,
As useless if it goes as when it stands.

When I was young, I thought of nothing else but pleasure.

Pride may be pampered, while the flesh grows lean.

'T is full ten months since I did see him last.

I felt that he was present, ere my eye told it me.

Now that their distress was over, they forgot that he had returned to them.

In Britain, the conquered race became as barbarous as the conquerors were.

Death itself is not so painful as is this sudden horror and surprise.

So much has passed between us as must make me bold, her fearful.

His misery was such that none of the bystanders could refrain from weeping.

Since my country calls me, I obey.

Freely we serve, because we freely love.

Ye know the heart of a stranger, seeing ye were strangers in the land of Egypt.

That is strange, considering he is your next neighbor.

He gazed so long that both his eyes were dazzled.

The pains are no sooner over than they are forgotten.

Scarce had he mounted, ere the Pappenheimers broke through the lines.

If you have tears, prepare to shed them now.

So Mahomet and the mountain meet, it is no matter which moves to the other.

What 's a tall man unless he fight?

Although the wound soon healed again,
Yet, as he ran, he yelled for pain.

I came, that Marco might not come.

Ye shall not eat of it, lest ye die.

Where your treasure is, there will your heart be also.

I will run as far as God has any ground.

As heroes think, so thought the Bruce.

The earlier you rise, the better your nerves will bear study.

Tears, such as angels weep, burst forth.

All hast thou spoken as my thoughts are.

Other harvest here than that which peasant's scythe demands was gathered in.

All the more it seeks to hide itself, the bigger bulk it shows.

Thou knowest how her image haunted me
Long after we returned to Alcala.

XXVII. Substantive-clauses: §§ 434–5.

What reason weaves by passion is undone.

Who cheapens life abates the fear of death.

The triumph of my soul is that I am.

What followed was in perfect harmony with the beginning.

How he can is doubtful; that he never will is sure.

Who builds a church to God, and not to fame,
Will never mark the marble with his name.

They will admit that he was a great poet, but they will deny that he was a great man.

That there should have been such a likeness is not strange.

He hath heard that men of few words are the best men.

You have heard if I fought bravely.

Why me the stern usurper spared, I knew not.

I have often been told by my friends that I was rather too modest.

He little knew how much he wronged her.

I never was what is popularly called superstitious.

They made a bargain that they would never forsake each other.

You said nothing of how I might be dungeoned for a madman.

The theatre affords the most appropriate example of what I mean.

I have sinned in that I have betrayed the innocent blood.

Knowledge is proud that he has learned so much;
Wisdom is humble that he knows no more.

Still the wonder grew
That one small head could carry all he knew.

Persuasion in me grew that I was heard with favor.

I am not so certain that these much-decried children have been dunces.

I don't care a jot whether you are a prince.

We know that nations may be miserable amid victories.

The heart distrusting asks if this be joy.

It is to you, good people, that I speak.

See what a rent the envious Casca made.

I feared lest it might anger thee.

Whence thou return'st and whither went'st, I knew.

They have no sense of why they sing.

They were but too ready to believe that whoever had incurred his displeasure had deserved it.

Whate'er this world produces, it absorbs.

Thou canst make conquest of whate'er seems highest.

Howe'er deserved her doom might be,
Her treachery was faith to me.

Whate'er he be, 't was not what he had been.

Where'er I roam, whatever realms I see,
My heart, untravelled, fondly turns to thee.

XXVIII. Omission of that; dependent clauses of addition: §§ 436-7.

Thou see'st I am calm.

No wonder you are deaf to all I say.

I do assure you I would offer him no less.

The moment my business here is arranged, I must set out.

Now I think on thee, my hunger 's gone.

Take the good the gods provide thee.

Here find that calm thou gav'st so oft before.

There be some sports are painful.

And you may gather garlands there
Would grace a summer queen.

I carried her to the bed, where I laid her down.

A glass was offered to Mannering, who drank it to the health of the reigning prince.

With full assent they vote; whereat his speech he thus renews.

The schoolmaster had hardly uttered these words, when the stranger entered.

When thou fall'st must Edward fall: which peril Heaven forfend!

The rich with us have two sources of wealth, whereas the poor have but one.

I thrice presented him a kingly crown, which he did thrice refuse.

They charged the jailer to keep them safely; who, having received such a charge, thrust them into the inner prison.

CHAPTER XV.

INFINITIVE AND PARTICIPLE CONSTRUCTIONS.

438. The infinitives and participles are, as we have seen (**235**), verbal nouns and adjectives: that is to say, words which, while keeping in general their character and use in the sentence as nouns and adjectives, take at the same time the adjuncts or modifiers which are taken by the verb to which they belong — such as objects, predicate nouns and adjectives, and adverbs.

Thus, for example, in the "progressive present tense"

I am reading,

the participle **reading** takes all the modifiers which go with the simple verbal form **read** in **I read**; and therefore **I am reading** can be treated as if it were also a simple tense. And the same is true of the infinitive **read** in the "future tense"

I shall read.

On account of this double character, the infinitives and participles have some peculiar constructions, to which it is necessary to give a little special attention.

INFINITIVES.

439. There are, as has been already pointed out (**237**), two simple infinitives to every verb: thus,

give, giving; love, loving; be, being; have, having.

One of these, which has always the same form with the root of the verb, is called simply the ***infinitive*** — or, for distinction, the ***root-infinitive.*** The other, which always ends in **ing**, having the same form with the present participle, is called the ***infinitive*** in **ing**, or the ***participial infinitive.***

In addition to these, every verb forms, by adding its present and past participle to the infinitives of the auxiliaries **have** and **be**, certain ***infinitive-phrases***, which, with the names by which they are called, may be repeated here from Chapter VIII. (**294, 300**).

Thus, to the root-infinitive:

	Simple.	Progressive.	Passive.
Present	(**to**) GIVE,	(**to**) **be giving**,	(**to**) **be given**;
Perfect	(**to**) **have given**,	(**to**) **have been giving**,	(**to**) **have been given**;

and to the participial infinitive:

Present	GIVING,	[**being giving**,]	**being given**;
Perfect	**having given**,	**having been giving**,	**having been given.**

The progressive form **being giving**, though not forbidden, is so uncommon that it can hardly be said to be in practical use.

440. The root-infinitive usually has before it the preposition **to**, which is called its SIGN, and is to be considered and described as a part of it.

In the oldest English, this preposition was only used with the infinitive when it had a real prepositional value: for example, in such phrases as

it is good to eat; **there is much to say**:

that is, 'good unto eating or for eating'; 'much for saying.' But we add it now to the infinitive in a mechanical way, as if it were a mere grammatical device for pointing out that the following word is an infinitive.

441. But the **to** is also in a great many cases omitted.

Thus,

a. After the verbs generally used as auxiliaries (**280**), both in the formation of verb-phrases, and in their more independent use.

These auxiliaries are **do, will, shall, may, can**, and **must. Ought** requires the **to.**

b. After a few other verbs, either usually or optionally. Such are **dare, help, need, 'gin** (for **begin**); and **please** and **go** in certain uses: for example,

he dared not leave the place;

or **he did not dare to leave it;**

go find your master;

but **he went to find him.**

c. In certain peculiar or elliptical constructions.

Thus, after **had** followed by **as lief, rather,** etc.: for example,

you had better go home; I had rather die than do it;

in comparative phrases, like

as well yield at once as struggle vainly;

after **but** following a negative: thus,

she cannot but grieve for him;

they did nothing but idle about;

and a few other less common cases.

d. After certain verbs, when preceded by a word having the relation of object to those verbs, but also the logical value (see below, **449**) of a subject to the infinitive.

The most common of this class of verbs are **see, hear, feel, let, make, bid, help, have** (in the sense of 'make' or 'cause'), **know, find.** Examples are:

I saw him do it; I must not have you question me.

After some of these, **to** is allowed, or is even more usual; and, on the other hand, there are other verbs after which the **to** is occasionally omitted, especially in antique and poetic styles.

Where the preceding verb is made passive, **to** is regularly used: thus,

he was seen to do it.

442. The two infinitives, with the infinitive-phrases that belong to them, have in part the same uses with each other, and in part different uses. In noticing the infinitive constructions, we will take up first those in which both agree.

443. The infinitives are used as subject of a verb, or as predicate-noun with a verb.

Examples are

for him, to hear is to obey;

all we want is to be let alone;

seeing is believing;

giving one's money away liberally is far better than keeping everything to one's self;

his having been absent is a great pity.

We have already noticed (**163 a**) the frequent anticipation of a subject infinitive (as of a substantive clause, **434 a**) by an **it** standing as ***grammatical subject*** before the verb: while the infinitive, the ***logical subject,*** follows the verb: thus, for example,

it is good to be here; it will not suit us to go with you.

444. The infinitives are used as object of a verb.

There are many cases under this head in which either infinitive may be used: thus,

he likes to journey rapidly,

or

he likes journeying rapidly;

I intend to start to-morrow,

or

I intend starting to-morrow.

But there are others in which usage allows only the one or the other of them: thus,

we used to live here;

they resented having been insulted.

As was pointed out above (**280**), the use of the infinitive with auxiliaries in verb-phrases really belongs under this head. Thus, **I do love** is 'I perform the act of loving'; **I will love** is 'I choose or resolve on loving'; **I can love** is 'I am capable of loving'; and so on.

445. The infinitives are used as object of a preposition.

But the root-infinitive is thus used nowadays only with the preposition **about:** thus,

he was about to depart (or **about departing**),

in the peculiar sense of 'concerned with, busy about,' and so 'on the point of,' departing. In older English, it was also much used in the same way after **for:** thus,

what went ye out for to see?

and it was occasionally made the object of other propositions; but all this is now no longer proper.

On the other hand, the infinitive in **ing** is very common after a great variety of prepositions: thus,

he is tired of wasting his time on trifles;
I know nothing about her having done it;
the horse is worn with having been ridden so hard.

446. These are all the constructions of the infinitive in **ing**. They are especially peculiar in this: that the infinitive very often has before it a noun or pronoun in the possessive, signifying the person or thing to which the action expressed by the infinitive belongs, the one most concerned with it. And this possessive has almost always the value of a ***subjective genitive*** (**385 a**), or one which points out the *subject* of the verbal action — one which, if the infinitive phrase were turned into a substantive-clause (as it always may be), would be the subject of that clause. Thus,

Tom's being here was a lucky thing;
they insisted on his following them;
he knew of my having been left out;

are equivalent to

it was a lucky thing that Tom was here;
they insisted that he should follow them;
he knew that I had been left out.

But the possessive may also have the value of an ***objective genitive*** (**385 b**), pointing out the object or recipient of the verbal action: thus,

the deep damnation of his taking off;

where the equivalent expression with subjective genitive would be **of their taking him off**; or, with the object turned into a passive subject, **of his being taken off.**

447. The uses of the infinitive in **ing** shade off into those of an ordinary abstract noun, and it is not possible to draw a line sharply between its values as the one thing and as the other. Thus, in

we read of Cæsar's passing the Rubicon,

passing is unmistakably an infinitive, because it takes a direct object, **Rubicon.** But in

Cæsar's passing of the Rubicon,

and yet more in

the passing of the Rubicon by Cæsar,

passing has so entirely the construction of a noun, as if it were **the passage of the Rubicon,** that we can hardly call the word anything but a noun.

Out of this double value grow cases of disputed propriety of usage.

448. The root-infinitive, accompanied by its sign **to,** is used after many verbs and adjectives and nouns, and even adverbs, to point out intent, purpose, object, consequence, and the like.

Thus,

he came to visit us;
we are here to hear what you shall say;
he fell, never to rise again;
they are ready to find fault, and hard to please;
I have a work to do, and courage to perform it;
it was a path to guide their feet.

The common use of an infinitive after **be,** to express something expected or required, is of this character. Thus,

this is to be done at once; **he is to die at sunrise:**

that is, **this is a thing for being done,** and so on (compare **440**).

Any adjective or adverb qualified by **too** or **enough** may be followed by such an infinitive: thus,

they are too many to be sacrificed, but not strong enough to conquer;
I love you too much to let you go.

This very common construction is the one in which the sign of the infinitive, the preposition **to,** retains most of its original and proper value, as meaning 'unto, in order to, for the purpose of,' and the like. But the construction has quite outgrown its natural limits, and the infinitive with **to** (like the substantive clause, **434 f**) is now used in numerous cases where with the

infinitive in **ing**, or with a noun of any kind, a different preposition would be necessary. Thus,

he failed to appear; I have reason to suspect;
he was glad to be there;

where we should say

failed of appearing, or **of appearance;**
reason for suspecting, or **for suspicion;**
glad at being there, or **of his presence.**

Other examples are

we grieve to hear (but **at hearing**);
a fool to think so (but **for thinking**);
a proposal to send (but **of sending**);
ashamed to beg (but **of begging**).

This (like the similar use of the substantive clause, **434**) may be called the construction of the infinitive as an ***adverbial objective*** (**390**), its use as an adjunct to another word without any sign of connection expressed between the two.

449. The root-infinitive, with or without **to**, is used after a verb and its object, as a kind of adjunct to the latter, signifying an action in which it is concerned.

Thus,

they saw her depart; nobody imagined him to be listening;
they declared him to have been killed.

This important and widely used construction has more than one starting-point. In such cases as

I told him to go; they forbade us to enter;

the infinitive is really the direct object, and the pronoun the indirect object, of the verb, just as in the sentences

I told him a story; they forbade us entrance.

In other cases, like

I forced him to go; they counselled us to remain;

the **to** has nearly its proper value of a preposition governing a noun, as in

I forced him to the wall; they counselled us to this action.

But here again (as in the case described in the preceding paragraph), the construction has been carried much beyond its natural limits, as the object of the verb has come to seem a kind of SUBJECT TO THE INFINITIVE; since, for example,

I ordered the boy to be off;

he believed his friend to have been wronged;

are equivalent to

I ordered that the boy should be off;

he believed that his friend had been wronged.

In any such case, the object can be turned into the subject of a passive verb-phrase, the infinitive (with **to**) remaining as an adverbial adjunct to the latter: thus,

she was seen to depart; the boy was ordered to be off;

his friend was believed by him to have been wronged.

450. The root-infinitive is sometimes used in other more anomalous cases, of which the commonest are the following:

a. After **seem** and the like: thus,

they seemed to tremble.

This is most like the passive construction (noticed just above), **they were seen to tremble.**

b. After **as**, preceded by **so, such**, and the like: thus,

it was so used as to be worn out;

he is such a fool as to believe the story.

This is most like the use of an infinitive after an adjective or adverb with **too** or **enough** (**448**: compare **494**).

c. After a relative word, in such phrases as

he knows not when to go, or where to stay.

This may be explained as an ellipsis for **when he is to go**, and so on. And a similar ellipsis is to be seen in

the wrath to come; a generation yet to be born;

for **the wrath which is to come**, and so on.

d. After **have** in the sense of 'be obliged, be called upon': thus,

we have to leave in an hour.

This is doubtless by an extension of such transitive constructions as

we have to perform a duty;

and this is itself only a transformation of

we have a duty to perform:

that is, **a duty for performing** (**448**).

c. After **had** followed by a word of comparison, especially **as lief, rather, better**, in such phrases as

I had rather go than stay; you had better be careful.

Here the infinitive is really the direct object of **had**, which is preterit subjunctive, and the comparative is an objective predicate qualifying it: the meaning is 'I should hold or regard going a better thing than staying'; and so on.

451. A word (pronoun) in the predicate after an infinitive having a ***subject*** **(449)** which is the object of another verb, is put in the objective case, to ***agree*** with the word to which it relates (compare **371**): thus,

we knew it to be him.

[See Exercise XXIX., at the end of the chapter.]

PARTICIPLES.

452. There are, as we have seen already **(238)**, two simple participles belonging to an English verb: thus,

giving, given; loving, loved; being, been; having, had.

One of these, ending always in **ing**, we called the PRESENT participle; the other, formed in a variety of ways, we called the PAST or the PASSIVE participle.

These are names only of convenience, and by no means accurately descriptive. The "present" participle really denotes action continuing or in progress, equally in time past or present or future: thus,

I was sitting; I am sitting; I shall be sitting.

And the other denotes sometimes (in intransitive verbs) completed action, or condition as the result of such, and sometimes (in transitive verbs) action endured, equally without reference to time: thus,

he was gone; he is gone; he will be gone;
he was sent; he is sent; he will be sent.

Participle-phrases, having constructions akin with those of the simple participles, are, for the present participle, a ***perfect*** and ***progressive perfect:*** as, for example,

having given and **having been giving;**

and, for the past participle in its passive use, a ***progressive passive*** and a ***perfect passive:*** as, for example,

being given and **having been given.**

453. The constructions of the participles differ less from those of ordinary adjectives than the constructions of the infini-

tives from those of ordinary nouns, since adverbial modifiers are taken in general by adjectives as well as by verbs, and only the present participle (with its phrases) takes an object, or is followed by a predicate noun or adjective (except in verb-phrases with the auxiliary **have**).

454. In the ***progressive*** and ***passive*** verb-phrases, with the auxiliary **be**, the present and passive participles have the same modifiers which they take in their more independent uses; but in the ***perfect*** verb-phrases, with the auxiliary **have**, the passive participle loses its peculiar character, and becomes like the present, having the same constructions with it.

Thus, we say

just as we say	**seeming happy;**	**giving a book;**
	he was seeming happy;	**I am giving a book;**

but though we say

we cannot say	**he has seemed happy;**	**he had given a book;**
	seemed happy;	**given a book.**

This is because (as explained above, **289**) the participle with **have** was originally an objective predicate, qualifying the direct object of the auxiliary; while the combination has now become a merely mechanical one, a device for signifying certain varieties of past time, and it can no longer be taken apart and parsed word by word. Thus **I have loved** and **I had struck** show varieties of the time of **loving** and **striking**, and no trace of their original passive meaning is left to the participles **loved** and **struck**; their uses are parallel with those of **loving** and **striking** in **I am loving, I was striking.**

455. Both the simple participles (not the participle-phrases also) are freely used as attributive adjectives, with only such modifiers as may be taken by all adjectives.

For example:

a charming face;	**a very loving heart;**
his brightly shining arms;	**singing birds;**
a charmed snake;	**a warmly loved friend;**
brightly polished arms;	**well sung songs.**

A past participle, when thus used attributively, or in the manner of an ordinary adjective, sometimes has a fuller form than in its more proper participial use: thus, in

a learned man,	**a blessed sight,**

we regularly pronounce the words with two syllables; while in

he learned his lesson,	**they blessed the day,**

the same are spoken with only one. And we saw above (275) that the old form of a past participle in **en** is in many cases preserved in adjective use: thus,

but

a drunken man; **a swollen face;**

he has drunk the draught; **his face has swelled.**

Not a few words which are participles in form are so constantly used as ordinary adjectives that they hardly seem to us to be participles at all — sometimes, indeed, there is no verb in present use to which they belong: thus,

charming, interesting, trifling, cunning;
beloved, forlorn, civilized, antiquated, past.

And we have seen (194 c) that a great many compound words take the participial ending **ed** to make them adjectives: thus,

barefooted, one-armed, chicken-hearted.

456. The simple participles (hardly ever the participle-phrases also) are used in the various constructions of a predicate adjective.

Of the simple predicate, the best examples are the ***progressive*** and ***passive*** verb-phrases, such as

he is beating, **he is beaten,**

which are used in all connections as if they were simple verb-forms, active and passive.

Of the adverbial predicate (355), examples are:

he came running to where she lay sleeping;
it stands firmly planted.

Of the objective predicate (369), examples are:

I will have a doctor sent for;
he made his influence everywhere felt;
they saw him leading the child;
he kept us waiting an hour.

The present participle appears sometimes to have, especially in the predicate after **be**, a passive force, in such phrases as

the house is building; **we know what is doing there;**
the horses are putting to.

But these apparent present participles are held to have been originally participial infinitives, the phrases being really

the house is in (or on) building;

that is, 'in process of building'—and so with the rest. The colloquial **is a-building** and the like show a relic of the lost preposition.

It is in order to avoid the ambiguity of such expressions as these that our progressive passive phrases (**299**) have been formed in recent times.

457. The participles and participle-phrases are used with the utmost freedom ***appositively*** (**376**), or with the construction of an adjective more loosely attached to the noun qualified by it.

For example:

she, dying, gave it to me;
having made his best bow, John retired;
the enemy, beaten, fled, abandoning his camp;
having been sent on an errand, he is not here.

Often, instead of using an adjective or a past participle by itself as directly appositive, we insert the participle **being**, or its corresponding phrase **having been**, as a kind of sign or auxiliary of appositive construction, the adjective or past participle (very rarely, a present participle) then coming to be predicative after it. Thus,

John, being weary, has retired;
the enemy, having been beaten, fled.

458. We have seen (**376**) that the appositive adjective especially implies the suggestion of an adjective clause of which it is itself the predicate. And the participles and participle-phrases, used appositively, have very often the value of such clauses, being, in a manner, a substitute for them.

Thus, in place of some of the examples given in the preceding paragraph, we might have said:

she gave it to me when she died;
John retired after he had made his bow;
he is not here, because he has been sent away.

459. In not a few cases, the construction with a participle qualifying an object-noun (whether as objective predicate or as appositive) is equivalent to that of an infinitive with its ob-

jective ***subject*** (**449**), or of an infinitive in **ing** with its ***subjective*** possessive (**446**). Thus,

I saw him get down from his horse;
I saw his getting down from his horse;
I saw him getting down from his horse.

In all these three nearly equivalent expressions, the pronouns **him** and **his** are *logically* (that is, according to the real sense) subject of the action expressed by the infinitive or participle: the meaning is that 'he got down from his horse, and I saw it.' They are three different but related ways in which these verbal nouns and adjectives are made to play a part like that of real verbs in dependent clauses.

The passive participle in like manner plays the part of a passive verb: thus,

I saw him struck down by the assassin

is equivalent to

I saw how he was struck down etc.;

or, in active phrase,

I saw the assassin strike (or **striking**) **him down.**

460. Hence (both after a verb and after a preposition) the two constructions, of an objective case qualified by a present participle and of a possessive qualifying an infinitive in **ing**, are to a certain extent interchangeable; and the question sometimes arises as to which should be preferred. There are cases where both are equally proper; but even among good writers (and yet more among careless ones), the one is occasionally found where more approved usage would favor the other: thus,

pardon me blushing;
the certainty of the old man interrupting him;
the hope of society is in men caring for better things;

where **my blushing, the old man's interrupting him,** and **men's caring** would doubtless be better.

461. The participles and participle-phrases are used, much more freely and often than any other kind of appositional adjunct (**395**), in making an ***absolute*** construction, with either noun or pronoun.

Thus,

the teacher absenting himself, there was no school;
one of them having fallen, the rest ran away;
it being very cold, we made a fire;

or, with the passive participle,

this said, he sat down;
the signal being given, they started;
the ceremony having been completed, we dispersed.

Instead of a simple passive participle, or an adjective or other word or phrase, being taken directly with the noun or pronoun in absolute construction, an auxiliary **being** or **having been** is very often introduced, the other then becoming a predicate after it (just as in the ordinary appositive construction, **457**): for example,

this having been said, he sat down;
his heart being heavy with sorrow;

and so in other like cases.

Such phrases as

we sitting, as I said, the cock crew loud;
I having hold of both, they whirl asunder;
how can we be happy, thou being absent?

show that in the absolute construction the noun or pronoun is regularly in the nominative case. But instances of the objective are also sometimes found in good English writing, especially of an earlier time: thus,

this inaccessible high strength, us dispossessed, he trusted to have seized.

462. It may be added, finally, that the simple participles are, in the same manner as ordinary adjectives, used substantively, or as nouns.

Thus,

the living and the dead; the poor and suffering;
the lost, buried, and forgotten.

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER XV.

ON INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES.

The parsing of infinitives and participles calls for no special explanations or directions. Each is to be defined as being this or that infinitive or participle, or infinitive or participle phrase, belonging to such and such a verb, of such a conjugation (see the directions for the parsing of verbs, p. 131 etc.); and the construction is then to be stated, in accordance with the principles laid down in this chapter.

XXIX. Infinitive Constructions: §§ 443-51.

To be contents his natural desire.

To fly from need not be to hate mankind.

To seek philosophy in Scripture is to seek the dead among the living; to seek religion in Nature is to seek the living among the dead.

Not to know me argues yourselves unknown.

It is more blessed to give than to receive.

Oh, it is excellent to have a giant's strength; but it is tyrannous to use it like a giant.

> For not to have been dipped in Lethe lake
> Could save the son of Thetis from to die.

To look at thee unlocks a warmer clime.

> The toil
> Of dropping buckets into empty wells,
> And growing old in drawing nothing up.

He hopes to merit heaven by making earth a hell.

It comes either from weakness or guiltiness to fear shadows.

I can see that Mrs. Grant is anxious for her not finding Mansfield dull as winter comes on.

Some people never will distinguish between predicting an eclipse and conspiring to bring it on.

Returning were as tedious as go o'er.

I don't wonder at people's giving him to me for a lover.

The brazen throat of war had ceased to roar.

There the wicked cease from troubling.

Leaves have their time to fall, and flowers to wither at the north-wind's breath.

Music hath charms to soothe the savage breast.

None knew her but to love her;
None named her but to praise.

The King's persisting in such designs was the height of folly.

The learn'd is happy Nature to explore.

Freedom has a thousand charms to show.

He lies with not a friend to close his eyes.

They gave him knowledge of his wife's being there.

He altered much upon the hearing it.

The loud ethereal trumpet from on high 'gan blow.

Our cradle is the starting place;
Life is the running of the race.

Man never is, but always to be, blest.

Thus hast thou seen one world begin and end.

We often had the traveller or stranger visit us to taste our gooseberry wine.

I hope she takes me to be flesh and blood.

I might command you to be slain for this.

The Lord God had not caused it to rain on the earth.

In our island the Latin appears never to have superseded the old Gallic speech.

The story was by tradition affirmed to be truth.

There 's no greater luxury in the world than being read to sleep.

XXX. Participle Constructions: §§ 455-62.

The neighbors, hearing what was going forward, came flocking about us.

The melting Phœbe stood wringing her hands.

Thus I found her straying in the park.

In other hands I have known it triumphed in and boasted of with reason.

I 'll have thee hanged to feed the crow.

They set him free without his ransom paid.

With my minstrel brethren fled, my jealousy of song is dead.

No longer relieving the miserable, he sought only to enrich himself by their misery.

Finding myself suddenly deprived of the company and pleasures of the town, I grew melancholy.

To whom being going, almost spent with hunger, I am fallen in this offence.

Her voice is truth, told by music; theirs are jingling instruments of falsehood.

This happy night the Frenchmen are secure,
Having all day caroused and banqueted.

Things are lost in the glare of day
Which I can make the sleeping see.

The younger who was yet a boy, had nothing striking in his appearance.

Thou knowest what a thing is poverty among the fallen on evil days.

The French, having been dispersed in a gale, had put back to Toulon.

That arose from the fear of my cousin hearing of these matters.

I cannot accept the notion of school-life affecting the poet to this extent.

I grant that, men continuing what they are, there must be war.

Conscience, her first law broken, wounded lies.

She being down, I have the placing of the British crown.

The hour concealed, and so remote the fear,
Death still draws nearer, never seeming near.

These injuries having been comforted externally, Mr. Pecksniff having been comforted internally, they sat down.

Shame, thou looking on, would utmost vigor raise.

Six frozen winters spent,
Return with welcome home from banishment.

Miss Jervois loves to sit up late, either reading or being read to.

There was a good fire in the next parlor, which the company were about to leave, being then paying their reckoning.

CHAPTER XVI.

INTERROGATIVE AND IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

463. The only kind of sentence of which we have thus far treated is that by which something is asserted or declared, and which is therefore called the ASSERTIVE or DECLARATIVE sentence.

But (as has been already more than once pointed out: **22, 338**) this is not the only kind of sentence that we use.

Instead of making a matter the subject of assertion, we sometimes make it the subject of inquiry. If we want to know about anything, we do not need to (though we always may) make a statement of our want: saying, for example,

I desire to know from you whether John is here;

we say instead,

is John here?

Again, we express a command or request without putting it in the form of an assertion. Instead of saying

I wish (or **command**) **that you come here,**

we may say simply

come here!

These are fundamentally different forms of sentence, because they lack the assertion or predication which is the essential element of an ordinary sentence. Information, inquiry, command — these are the three established uses of communication between man and man, each having its own form of expression.

THE INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE.

464. The INTERROGATIVE sentence, that by which inquiry is made, differs least from the assertive, has least that is peculiar to itself.

Like the assertive, it is made up of a subject-nominative and a predicate verb, each admitting all the adjuncts or modifiers that are to be found in the ordinary sentence, and the verb having the same variety of forms and phrases as there.

The variation of the interrogative sentence from the assertive is of two kinds.

465. First: if the question is as to the predication itself, or whether a certain thing, which would be expressed by the sentence in its assertive form, is or is not true, then the change is simply one of arrangement, the subject being put after the verb instead of before it.

Thus, for example:

is he here? did he arrive yesterday?
will he go to town to-morrow?
does he take the journey for pleasure?
has he put up at the inn?

466. To such questions, the natural answer is the very same sentence in assertive form, with or without the adverb **not** added: thus,

he is here; he did arrive yesterday;
he will not go to town to-morrow;

and so on.

Or, for brevity's sake, we use the simple RESPONSIVES (**318**), **yes** or **no**, the one in place of the full affirmative reply, the other of the negative.

467. A variation of this kind of sentence is the ALTERNATIVE interrogative, by which, of two or more things thought of as possible, the one actually true is sought to be known; thus, for example,

did he arrive yesterday, or to-day?
will he go by rail, or in his carriage?

Here the answer is the assertion of one or of the other alternative, or the denial of the remaining one, or both: thus,

he arrived yesterday; he will not go by rail, but in his carriage.

468. Second: if the question is as to the subject of a given predication, or as to its object, or any other of the adjuncts or modifiers either of the subject-nominative or of the predicate verb, then the inquiry is made by means of some form of the interrogative pronoun (**169** etc.), or of the interrogative adjective (**209**); or by an interrogative adverb (**313 e**).

The interrogative words are, accordingly, **who (whose, whom), what, which** (and, in old style, **whether**); **where (wherefore, wherewith, whereby,** etc.), **whither, whence, when, why, how.**

Thus, for example:

who is here? **when did he arrive?**
where is he going to-morrow? **at what inn will he put up?**
what does he want?

469. The natural answer to such questions is a corresponding assertion, with the desired subject or object or other adjunct put in place of the interrogative word: thus,

John is here; **he arrived yesterday;**
he will put up at the best inn:

and so on.

470. As the examples show, the regular place of the interrogative word, of whatever kind, is at the beginning of the sentence, or as near it as possible. And then, as in the other kind of interrogative sentence, the subject, unless it be itself the interrogative word, is put after the verb.

471. This order of arrangement, as it *inverts* the usual position of the two essential elements of the sentence, the subject-nominative and the verb, is called the INVERTED order; or the sentence is said to be an inverted one. Its special use is in interrogation, but it is also found elsewhere.

Thus (by a usage which has grown out of the interrogative one), it is sometimes employed in stating a ***condition***, or in giving that meaning which we usually express by **if**. For example:

hadst thou been here, he had not died;
were the king dead, his son would succeed;
none will listen, criest thou never so loud;

instead of

if thou hadst been here; if the king were dead;
if (or though) thou criest never so loud.

This is called a case of ***conditional inversion,*** or the sentence is said to be an ***inverted conditional*** sentence.

472. The regular and usual order of the interrogative sentence is sometimes changed, generally with some change of meaning.

Thus, a sentence in the assertive order is often made interrogative simply by the tone of voice in which it is uttered: for example,

he is not gone yet? he will put up where?

which may express surprise, as if

is it possible that he is not yet gone?

or may request the repetition of a statement not understood, as if

where did you say that he put up?

or something of the kind.

473. The interrogative sentence, like the assertive, may be compound, or complex, or compound-complex, interrogative clauses being used instead of the independent assertive clauses of such sentences. But an interrogative clause cannot be dependent — except, indeed, in the case (a very rare one) of a dependent clause of addition (**437**): thus,

he lives at Paris — where is it possible that you have never been?

THE IMPERATIVE SENTENCE.

474. The IMPERATIVE sentence, expressing a command or requirement, has for its characteristic a special form or ***mode*** of the verb, namely the IMPERATIVE MODE (**233**), which takes the same adjuncts or modifiers as any of the other verbal forms.

The imperative is not in our present English marked by a distinct inflection or other sign; it is always the same with the simple infinitive, or the ***root*** of the verb: thus,

give, love, be, go, do, have.

For the imperative, as for the other modes, are made ***emphatic, progressive,*** and ***passive*** verb-phrases: thus,

love: do love, be loving, be loved;
go: do go, be going, be gone;

An emphatic imperative-phrase is made even from **be**; thus,

do be still; do not be gone long.

But the imperative has no different tense-forms or tense-phrases; and it is the same in the singular as in the plural.

475. As a command strictly implies that the person commanding speaks directly *to* the person or persons commanded, the real imperative is only of the second person.

And as, in such direct address, a pronoun designating the persons addressed is rather unnecessary, the imperative is generally used without any subject. If a subject is expressed (compare **479**), it is put after the verb. Thus,

bring roses, pour ye wine; repine thou not at thy lot;
come here and be washed; do not leave us so soon.

476. The imperative sentence (like the interrogative, **473**) may have the same variety of construction as the assertive, being compound, complex, and so on. But an imperative clause can be dependent only when it is simply additive (**437**): thus,

he will be here to-morrow, when please call again;
it is at the tenth page, which see.

477. Another mode of expression, made with a kind of imperative auxiliary, **let**, is much used in order to intimate a wish or direction in the third person, and even in the first: thus,

let me give, let us give;
let him give, let them give;

let us stand faithfully together;
let the drums be beaten;
let the messenger set out at once.

This is so common that it seems to us to supply the place of the missing first and third persons of the imperative mode; and it is properly to be regarded and described as an ***imperative verb-phrase.***

Here the **let** is plainly a real imperative, and the **give** etc. an infinitive, to which the intervening pronoun or noun stands in the relation of objective subject (**449**), just as in **make him go, see him give,** and the like. **Let him give** literally means 'allow him to give,' or 'cause that he give.'

478. But the proper imperative is by no means the only form of expression by which a speaker signifies a command or demand, or seeks to control or to influence the action of another.

The same thing is done by assertive expressions like

thou shalt go; you must give;

which are in themselves simple statements that there exists a necessity for such and such action on the part of the person addressed; and, of course, the same statement, with something of the same imperative meaning, may be made in the third person, or even in the first.

479. The direct command of the imperative, moreover, shades off into expressions of more or less forcible or imperative wish, or desire, or imprecation.

In these senses, the present subjunctive is much used, especially in antique and poetic style and in certain established phrases: thus,

part we in friendship from your land;
be we bold and make despatch;
some heavenly power guide us hence;
thy will be done; the Lord bless thee;
well, then, be it so; perish the thought.

This is called the OPTATIVE use of the subjunctive (*optative* means 'expressing *option* or wish'). It is limited to the first and third persons — unless, indeed (which would be correct enough), we regard the proper imperative, when it has its subject expressed, as being rather an optative subjunctive.

As the examples show, the subject always follows the verb in the first person, and may either precede or follow (more often the latter) in the third.

The preterit subjunctive has also sometimes an optative sense, but only in incomplete expression (**501**).

480. In ordinary speech, instead of the optative subjunctive we generally use the verb **may** as optative auxiliary, always putting the subject after it. Thus, for example,

may I retain your friendship; may we part in peace;
may some heavenly power guide us hence; may the thought perish;
may there be no ill-will between us.

With such phrases, the imperative verb-phrase with **let** (477) is generally equivalent in meaning and interchangeable.

THE EXCLAMATORY INTERROGATIVE SENTENCE.

481. The interrogative pronouns and adjective **who** and **what** (not **which**, nor **whether**), and the interrogative adverbs (especially **how**), are often used in an EXCLAMATORY sense — that is, to make an *exclamation*, expressing some strong feeling, such as surprise, admiration, disapprobation. Thus, for example,

what a sad sight was this! how are the mighty fallen!
who would ever have believed it!

Such are to be called exclamatory sentences in the interrogative form.

The form may also be that of a dependent clause: thus,

what a sad sight this was! how the mighty are fallen!

But this is an instance of incomplete expression: as if it were

see what a sad sight this was! it is strange, how the mighty are fallen:

It belongs, then, like the optative preterit, in the next chapter (501).

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER XVI.

ON INTERROGATIVE AND IMPERATIVE SENTENCES.

Thus far we have had (except in here and there an exceptional instance) only assertive sentences to describe, and have had no need to define them as being such; but after this, in taking up any sentence, we have to tell first of all whether it is an assertive, an interrogative, or an imperative sentence (or, if the instructor prefers, only one of the

last two kinds is to be defined as such, it being understood otherwise that the sentence is of the first kind, assertive). Then we may proceed to analyze it and parse its members according to the methods which have been followed hitherto. An interrogative sentence may be re-arranged in the assertive order, and divided into subject and predicate. But an imperative sentence without an expressed subject cannot be so treated. If we have, for example, the sentence

give me that book,

we must say that it is an imperative sentence, composed of the imperative verb **give** (with its adjuncts), used without a subject, for the purpose of giving a command to the person or persons addressed.

An inverted conditional clause (**471**) should be defined as such; and also an inverted optative clause (**479**); other cases of inverted order (as in **said he, never will I consent, great is Diana**) do not call for particular notice, unless the general subject of the order of words in the sentence is taken up — which is not attempted in this work.

XXXI. Miscellaneous examples.

So Heaven decrees; with Heaven who can contest?

Peace! what can tears avail?

Lives there who loves his pain?

What need a man forestall his date of grief?

Who is here so rude that would not be a Roman?

What proof, alas! have I not given of love?

What fear we then? what doubt we to incense his utmost ire?

I ask you: are you innocent or guilty?

Had I not four or five women once that tended me?

What cause withholds you then to mourn for him?

Whether of them twain did the will of his father?

Wherewith shall a young man cleanse his way?

Will you permit that I shall stand condemned?

Feelest thou not, O world, the earthquake of his chariot thundering up Olympus?

For what intent have ye sent for me hither?

Shall the thing formed say to him that formed it: why hast thou made me thus?

Hearken! he speaketh yet;
O friend, wilt thou forget —
Friend more than brother —

How hand in hand we 've gone,
Heart with heart linked in one,
All to each other?

They leave us the dangers, the repulses — which how long will you bear?

Awake! arise! or be forever fallen.

And see, he cried, the welcome,
Fair guests, that waits you here.

Curse not thy foeman now;
Mark on his pallid brow
Whose seal is set.

Lochiel! Lochiel! beware of the day
When the Lowlands shall meet thee in battle array.

Be aye sticking in a tree, Jack; it 'll be growing while ye 're sleeping.

Eat thou not the bread of him that hath an evil eye.

O make her a grave where the sunbeams rest,
When they promise a glorious morrow.

Reap we not the ripened wheat,
Till yonder hosts are flying.

Let me not forget what I have gained from their own mouths.

Let us go round, and let the sail be slack, the course be slow.

Let the waters under the heaven be gathered together, and let the dry land appear.

The bridegroom cometh; go ye out to meet him.

To a solemn feast I will invite young Simon Calymath — where be thou present.

Vex not thou the poet's mind.

The Lord judge between thee and me.

Green be the turf above thee.

May'st thou find with Heaven the same forgiveness as with thy father here!

How wonderful is Death, Death and his brother Sleep!

How sleep the brave, that sink to rest
By all their country's wishes blest!

Had I a daughter worthy of such a husband, he should have such a wife.

Wast thou a monarch, me wouldst thou make thy queen?

Is my young master a little out of order, the question is: "What will my dear eat?"

CHAPTER XVII.

ABBREVIATED AND INCOMPLETE EXPRESSION.

482. A sentence or a clause is complete when it has its own subject and its own predicate, both given in full.

But we often express ourselves by sentences which are not complete, but lack more or less of the regular structure of a sentence; and we have now to look at some of the principal cases of this mode of expression.

483. Sentences are rendered incomplete chiefly by ABBREVIATION — that is to say, they are made shorter or *briefer* (hence the name), by omitting parts which it seems to us unnecessary to express, because, either through the connection or in some other way, the meaning is well enough understood without them.

A part of the sentence which is thus omitted, because the mind *understands* it to be there, or understands the sentence as if it were there, without needing to express it, is said to be UNDERSTOOD. And the omission is often called an ELLIPSIS (which is a Greek word for 'leaving out').

484. The abbreviation of sentences, in one or another way, is made in all styles of speaking and writing, and in sentences of every kind. But it is especially common, 1. in familiar colloquial speech and in conversation, because there the mutual *understanding* of speaker and hearer, and the aid of tone and gesture, do much to fill out the expression; and 2. in lively and picturesque, and especially in impassioned or emotional speech, because there it is sought to impress the mind more strongly by putting before it only the emphatic or most important ideas.

485. The simplest and commonest kind of abbreviation, which is used in almost every sentence we make, is that by which, when two or more co-ordinate clauses following one another would be made up in part by repeating the same words, these words are omitted in all but one, and left to be *understood,* or supplied from the connection, in the others.

Thus, for example, in the following sentences we should usually leave out the words which are put in brackets:

he is present, she [is] **absent;**
he is present, she [is] **not** [present];
I am well, [I am] **not sick;**
I have something to sing, [I have something to] **say;**
these are dark [woods, these are] **gloomy** [woods, these are] **unfrequented woods.**

486. Then, as we more often connect the clauses together by means of conjunctions when they are fully expressed, so we also make great use of conjunctions in connecting the fragments of them that remain when the unnecessary repetitions are omitted: thus, for example,

I am not sick, but well;
he is good, and handsome, and clever;
or **he is good, handsome, and clever;**
I have something to sing or say.

By this means, conjunctions, which are originally connectives of clauses only, have come to be, on a very large scale, connectives of words or phrases which are co-ordinate — that is to say, which have the same office or construction with one another — in a single clause.

And we have seen (**327**) that words of all the parts of speech, and in constructions of every kind — subjects, predicate verbs, objects, qualifying words, prepositions, and so on — are thus bound together by conjunctions within the limits of one clause.

487. As we call a sentence ***compound*** when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate clauses, usually connected together by conjunctions (**418-19**), so we call any member of a sentence or clause a COMPOUND MEMBER or element when it is made up of two or more co-ordinate words (usually bound together by conjunctions).

Thus, we have a compound subject in

friends and foes rushed through together;

a compound predicate adjective in

they were lovely and pleasant in their lives;

a compound prepositional connective in

he was seen both before and after the battle;

a compound adverb-phrase in

he was seen before the battle but not after it;

and so on.

We should never think of calling the sentence itself compound because any of its less essential members, any adjunct or modifier either of the subject or of the predicate verb, is compound; nor, in general, if the subject itself is compound; nor even if the predicate-verb is compound, provided the sentence is brief and not complicated, as in

he [went] **and I went;** **I went and** [I] **came;**

he [went] **and I went, and** [he came and I] **came,**

(here the words in brackets show what would be added to make the expression complete). But in

I arose, after a long and refreshing sleep, at six o'clock this morning, while the dew was shining on the grass, and, having made my toilet and despatched a hasty breakfast, went out into my orchard to see what damage yesterday's gale might have done to my fruit-trees,

it would doubtless be practically better to regard the omitted subject **I** as ***understood*** before **went**, and to describe the sentence as compound. The verb, the word of assertion, is the essential element, above all others, of a sentence; and it is perfectly proper to hold that there are as many sentences (or clauses) as there are verbs in anything we say.

488. The co-ordinating conjunction **and** is used far oftener than all the other conjunctions together in thus compounding the elements of sentences. And so distinctly do we feel that it

binds together into one the words composing a compound element that, as has been seen above (348 c), the verb belonging to a subject so compounded is made plural, as if it had a plural subject.

There are also other ways in which we make by means of and combinations which cannot be taken apart into single clauses : for example,

we thought Tom and Dick and Harry a noisy trio;
three and eighteen make one-and-twenty.

Such combinations with any other conjunction are only rare and irregular.

489. But even the subordinating conjunctions are sometimes used to join a mere word or phrase which represents an abbreviated dependent clause to that on which the clause would depend : thus,

it is important if true;
are you mad? if not, speak to me;
though often forbidden, he kept coming;
he fell while bravely defending the flag;
let them, when well again, return to duty:

that is, **if it is true; though he was forbidden; when they are well:** and so with the rest.

It is only the verb **be**, the simple *copula* between a subject and predicate word (353 a), along with a subject which is the same with that of the other clause, that can be left out thus, to abbreviate the expression. And, in all such cases, the fact of an ellipsis, or an omission of what might be and more often is expressed, is much more distinctly present to our minds than when we abbreviate by means of **and** or **or** or **but** and the like.

490. It is by the same simple and obvious kind of abbreviation — namely, by leaving out parts of the sentence which are so clearly understood from the connection that it would be mere wasteful repetition to express them — that in question and answer a word or two often stands for a whole sentence, short or long.

Thus, if one asks

who broke in through the window, and did all this mischief in the room?

it is quite enough to reply

Jack,

without repeating the whole story of what Jack did. Or, if one says

you need not expect to see me at school to-morrow,

the return-question

why?

and the answer,

because I am going out of town,

both imply repetitions of the first statement; but these need only to be implied, and not actually made.

So also we very often repeat, in the form of an abbreviated question, a statement just made, in the way of asking for assurance as to the truth of the statement: thus,

so they are off already, are they?
you do not believe it, do you?
we may be sure, may we not, that he will not betray us?

In all such cases, if we are to parse the words or clauses, we must supply the ellipsis, or add the expression of the parts which are only *understood*.

The *responsives* (318),

yea or **yes**, **nay** or **no**,

are originally adverbs, the one meaning 'certainly' or 'to be sure' (which we often use instead), the other meaning 'not,' and each stands by abbreviation for a sentence in which it had the office of an adverb; but they are now complete answers by themselves, and no longer imply any ellipsis, because we have come to use them only in this way, and never combine them with other words to make complete sentences.

491. By a like desire to avoid unnecessary repetition, we sometimes let a relative word represent alone the whole clause which it would have introduced: thus,

he has been gone all day, no one knows where;
I cannot come, and I will tell you why;
one of you must give way, I do not care which:

that is, **where he has gone; which gives way:** and so on.

We have noticed under Adjectives (203) the frequent and familiar omission of the noun qualified by an adjective, when it is readily to be supplied from the connection.

492. The infinitive or participle of a repeated verb-phrase is very often omitted, and the auxiliary left alone to represent the phrase: thus, for example,

he has never seen it, but I have; I will join them if you will;
do you promise me? I do.

In easy colloquial speech, even a repeated infinitive is represented by its *sign* **to** alone: as,

he would not go, though I told him to;
you may stay, if you want to;

but this is not allowed in careful style, nor in writing.

493. To save the burdensome repetition of nouns, we have (**33**) the pronouns as brief and much-used substitutes. In a similar way, the pronominal adverb **so** is a very frequent substitute for a word (oftenest an adjective) or phrase or clause used as complement of a verb: thus, for example,

he is either married or going to be so;
I thought that he could be trusted, but I think so no longer;
if he is not already tired of waiting for us, this last delay will certainly make him so.

And **do** is an almost equally frequent substitute for a verb that needs to be repeated: thus,

sleep seldom visits sorrow; when it doth, it is a comforter;
embrace me, as I do thee;
I love her better than he does.

494. It is because comparison naturally involves parallelism or repetition of expression that the conjunctions of comparison, **as** and **than**, and especially **as**, have come to be followed very frequently by abbreviated and incomplete expression (as already pointed out, **330 d**): thus, for example (adding in brackets the words which may be supplied as understood),

she is as good as he [is];
she was as handsome as [she] **ever** [was];
he put it off as long as [putting it off was] **possible;**
love thy neighbor as [thou lovest] **thyself;**
I treat him as [I treat] **a friend;**
I regard it as [I regard a thing] **possible.**

Starting with such abbreviated constructions as the last two, **as** has come to be used as a kind of appositive connective, and even to take on the meaning of 'in the light of,' 'in the character of'; so that we make such phrases as

he gained great fame as an orator; **his fame as orator was great;**

where it would be by no means easy to fill out the ellipsis in such a way as should give **as** its proper meaning.

Often, before a conditional clause, a whole clause of comparison, involving a repetition, is omitted after **as**: thus,

he looks as [he would look] **if he were tired;**
I would thank her as [I should thank her] **if she had done me a great favor.**

This omission is so common, that **as if** has come to seem to us a compound conjunction or conjunction-phrase of comparison, and we are quite unconscious of the ellipsis really implied in it. **As though** is used in the same sense; while, if the ellipsis were filled out, **though** could hardly ever begin the conditional clause.

Even the conditional clause itself may be abbreviated (**489**), making, for example,

he looks as if tired.

By a kindred abbreviation, we change

you must so act as one acts in order to win approbation

into

you must act so as to win approbation;

and this has become, its origin being unthought of by us, one of the common constructions of the infinitive (**450 b**).

Once more, we frequently form sentences like these:

my friends, poor as they are, are above being bought;
all unarmed as he may be, he will disdain to fly;

where the adjectives **poor** and **unarmed** are in appositive construction, qualifying the subjects of the independent clauses, **friends** and **he** — as if it were **being as poor as they actually are**, and so on. But such a clause comes to appear to us equivalent to **however poor they are**, or **though they are poor**; and then, by analogy with them, we form others which involve marked abbreviations: thus, for example,

poor as they are, you cannot buy them;

valiantly as he may fight, they will beat him;

where an absolute construction is implied: thus,

they being as poor as they are; he fighting as valiantly etc.

or, again,

much as I love you, I love honor more;

where the appositive adjective is omitted: thus,

I, loving you as much as I love you, love honor more.

495. Not only, however, where the completion of the expression would involve an unnecessary and avoidable repetition of something actually said close by, but also where the common

usages of speech are such as to show plainly enough what is meant, we often take the liberty of omitting something.

Thus, we may have a subordinate member of the sentence omitted, as in

he is fifteen [years old], and tall of his age;
it is a quarter after six [o'clock];
I shall leave on the twenty-third [day of the month];
yours [your letter] of yesterday is received;
stop at the baker's [shop] on the way;
we visited St. Peter's [church] last summer.

Or, we may have the more essential parts, the subject or the verb, or even both, omitted.

Thus, the subject is omitted in certain current phrases: as,

thank you! prithee (that is, I pray thee);
would that he were here! bless you! confound the fellow!

Also, in diary style: as,

went to church yesterday; heard a fine sermon; mean to go again next Sunday.

In the second person singular, in poetic and antique style: as,

hast heard? why dost stare so?

In expressions like

do what we will, work as hard as we may, we yet accomplish nothing;

for do we (that is, let us do), and so on.

In comparative phrases, an indefinite subject after as or than (compare 494): thus,

I will come as early as is possible;
the day was fairer than was usual at that season.

Again, the verb be, the *copula* (353 a) is sometimes omitted — oftenest before a predicate noun or adjective, and in a question: thus,

why all this noise here? you a soldier?
futile the effort; hence these tears.

Examples of the omission of both subject and predicate verb, only a subordinate member of the sentence remaining, are

[I wish you a] good morning, ladies;
[I drink to] your health, sir;
[I give you] many thanks for your kindness;
waiter, [hand me] a clean plate;
[It is] agreed! [give me] your hand upon it.

A verb of motion is often omitted in commands, being made unnecessary by an adverb or preposition: thus,

up and away! off with you!

496. **What** and **how**, followed by **if** and **though**, sometimes represent whole clauses: thus,

what though she be a slave! **how if the sky were to fall?**

that is, **what matter is it, how would it be,** or the like.

So **not**, in such sentences as

not that I was ever afraid of him,

is the remnant of a clause, something like **I would not say,** or **it is not the case.** And the related expression,

not but that I might have gone if I had chosen,

we should, in order to parse it, have to fill up into some such form as

I would not say anything but that I etc.

Compare the somewhat similar abbreviation with **but**, noticed in **187.**

497. The **so** which we use *so* liberally in all styles, but especially in mawkish and affected speech, in sentences like

I am so glad to see you, **it was so dreadful,**

makes the expression really incomplete, because it distinctly implies a comparison, of which the other member, a dependent clause introduced by **as** or **that**, is left unexpressed.

Well-established usage authorizes such expressions as

he says I have wronged him; but, so far from that, I have done him all the good in my power,

where the meaning is **but I am so far from that, that I have** etc.; but the form without **so**, namely,

but, far from that, I have etc.,

is both more logical and less cumbrous.

498. It was noticed above (**484**) that not economy alone, but often impressiveness also, is sought to be attained by abbreviation. In the haste and heat of feeling, we throw aside our usual elaborate mode of calm expression, by assertion or statement, by putting together a subject and a predicate, and bring forth only that part of the sentence which most strongly affects our mind, or which we wish to have most strongly affect the mind of another.

Hence all emotional expression tends strongly to incompleteness; the exclamatory sentence is apt to be a defective one. And any admixture of feeling adds to the readiness with which we resort to the various modes of abbreviation.

Some of the commoner cases of this may well be noticed here.

499. Along with an interjection we often put a word or phrase pointing out more distinctly the kind of emotion we feel, or the occasion of it: thus,

O horrible!	and oh, the difference to me!
alas, my unhappy country!	lo, the poor Indian!
ah, the pity of it!	fie, the lazy fellow!
pooh, nonsense!	pshaw, how absurd!

But quite as often the occasion of the feeling is itself made an exclamation of, without any interjection added, the tone and gesture showing plainly enough what the feeling is.

Occasionally, as if the interjection were an assertion instead of a mere sign of the feeling intended to be intimated, a preposition is used to combine it with the added explanation: thus,

O for a lodge in some vast wilderness!
fie on you! alas for Troy!

as if it were I long for a lodge, I cry shame upon you, I grieve for Troy.

500. A number of our ordinary words are so commonly used in incomplete exclamatory expression that they have almost won the character of interjections. Such are the interrogative words,

why, how, what;

with many others, of which the following are examples:

well, indeed, hark, behold, hail, help,
silence, quick, away, out, back, to arms.

501. Dependent clauses are often used in an exclamatory way, with omission of the main clause on which they should depend — this being sometimes replaced by an interjection.

Thus, for example:

O that he were here with us!
had we but known of it in time!
if you had only seen her in her glory!
as if I could be guilty of such meanness!
alas that he should have proved so false!
what a pleasant day it has been!
how clear and bracing the air is!

as if the construction were

I would that he were here;
it were well if you had seen her;
observe how clear the air is;

and so with the rest.

Such may be called exclamatory clauses in the dependent form.

502. As the imperative and optative modes of expression shade into one another (**479**), so both are nearly related with the exclamatory; and hence the

question may often arise whether a given sentence or part of a sentence is best viewed as the one or as the other — just as it may sometimes be questioned whether a sentence is more interrogative or exclamatory.

There is a certain relationship between the *vocative* or nominative of address in the noun (141), the *imperative* or mode of direct command in the verb, and the *interjection* or word of direct intimation of feeling. The first and last stand equally outside the structure of the sentence, and the imperative usually rejects a subject ; and the three variously accord in their practical uses.

503. For the sake of stimulating attention, or of giving force and impressiveness to what we say, or of softening what might seem too positive or blunt, or for other such purposes, we are apt in familiar colloquial style to throw in or *interject* into our sentences little phrases which form no real part of what we are saying, and stand in no grammatical connection with it, and which are also like interjections in that their chief purpose is to intimate our states of feeling.

Sometimes these are complete independent clauses : as,

you know; you see; I tell you;
I declare or **fancy** or **guess** or **calculate;**

and sometimes they are incomplete, or mere fragments of sentences: as,

to be sure; as it were; so to speak;
by your leave; if I may say so.

We may call them, then, INTERJECTIONAL PHRASES.

The whole catalogue of asseverations and oaths are of this character. Thus, for example,

by Jove

strictly means 'I swear by Jupiter,' and would be, if used seriously, the invocation of a divinity to attest the truth of what we are saying. And the same impulse to make our expression more forcible by putting into it a strong word or two, something that seems to imply feeling or passion, leads occasionally to the insertion of absurd bits of phrases, which it would be in vain to try to build up into sentences : thus, for example,

who the mischief can have done this?
what in thunder are you here for?

It is not easy to avoid slang and inelegance with even the most moderate use of the most innocent interjectional phrases ; and they shade rapidly off into what is coarse or profane.

504. It is a common consequence of abbreviation that words change their grammatical character, and come to be of a different class, or a different part of speech, from what they were before.

Thus, for example, in

he kept himself quiet, he got himself appointed,

keep and **get** have their proper value as transitive verbs, while the adjectives

quiet and **appointed** are objective predicates (**369**), qualifying their respective objects. But now in familiar style we have shortened the expressions to

he kept quiet; **he got appointed;**

and so have made the verbs intransitive, equivalents of **continued** and **became** — which last, like others of our verbs originally transitive or reflexive, has undergone a like change of construction.

Again, **along** (for **on long**) is originally an adverb-phrase, like **on high** and **in vain**, made into an adverb — like **abroad** and **afar**, which have always remained adverbs only. But, like **above** and **among**, and many other like adverbs, **along** came early to be used as a preposition also; and it was used in such phrases as **along the side of** anything. Then a further abbreviation and change made over the adverb-phrase **along the side** into a compound adverb, as in

his ship lay alongside of ours;

and this, finally, by omission of the following **of**, became what we have to call a preposition: as in

he laid his vessel alongside the enemy's.

Because, in like manner, is for **by cause** — that is, 'by reason' — as **beside** is for **by the side**. We have not, indeed, turned **because**, like **beside** (for example, in **beside himself**), into a preposition, but always use a connective between it and a following noun, as in

we stayed in, because of the storm;

just as we should say **by reason of the storm.** But between it and a following clause we have learned to leave out, by abbreviation, the words of connection, and so have turned it into a conjunction: thus,

we stayed in, because it was stormy;

where the complete expression would be

because of the fact that **it was stormy.**

So the conjunction **for** is originally the same word with **fore**; and the clause, for example,

for it was stormy,

is by abbreviation from **before** (that is to say, 'in front or in view of') the fact that **it was stormy.**

We have already noticed this mode of conversion of adverbs and prepositions, and even other parts of speech, into conjunctions (**331**), and have seen that it is still going on, since a part of the English-speaking people are in the act of changing **directly** from adverb to conjunction, by abbreviating the construction in which it is used (**330 a**).

505. These are only some (including the more usual and regular) of the ways in which English expression is abbreviated, with the result in part to give a new character to words, in part

to make incomplete or elliptical sentences, which have to be filled up in order to be described and parsed.

It may often fairly be made a question whether we shall supply an ellipsis, declaring a certain word or words to be *understood*, or whether we shall take the sentence just as it stands, regarding the mode of expression as so usual that the mind, even on reflection, is unconscious of the absence of anything that should be there.

Thus, it would be quite absurd to fill out a phrase in which **for** was used as conjunction to the form (as explained just above) out of which its use as conjunction grew; but we may either treat **as if** as a conjunction-phrase or fill in the clause which (**494**) the **as** really represents.

506. But our words also change sometimes, more or less, their grammatical character, simply by our coming to apprehend in a new way the expressions in which they are used.

Thus, we have observed already (**189**) the formation of the reciprocal pronoun-phrases **one another** and **each other** by our losing sight of the original difference of construction between the two pronouns composing them; also (**289**) the great shift of meaning of the passive participle when used with the auxiliary **have** to make "perfect" tenses; and other like cases.

So, further, the use of **both** and **either** or **neither** and **whether** as conjunctions, correlative to a following **and** and **or** or **nor**, is by derivation from their value as pronouns, by a changed understanding of such sentences as these:

> **I saw both** — [namely] **John and William;**
> **either** [one of us] — **he or I** — **must give way;**
> **he knows whether** [*i. e.* which of the two] — **this or that** — **is true.**

So, once more, **than** is only **then**, with a changed office; **this is better than that** means originally **this is better, then** (that is, 'next after it') **that.**

507. In part by abbreviation, in part by other changes of construction and of the value of words, every language has many modes of expression which are exceptional, unlike its ordinary combinations — phrases and sentences which if taken literally would not mean what we use them to mean, or which puzzle us when we attempt to analyze and explain them.

Such irregular expressions are called IDIOMS (from a Greek word meaning 'peculiarity'). Their production is a part of that constant change of language (**7**) which is often called its "growth." In order really to account for them, we need

especially a knowledge of the history of our language. The present usages of any tongue we cannot fully understand without knowing something of its past usages, out of which these have grown; and often a great deal of study, and a comparison of other languages, is required for settling difficult points.

The branch of study which attempts this, which traces out the history of words and phrases, and shows how they come to be used as they are, is called ETYMOLOGY — or, in a more general way, historical grammar; and, when carried on upon a wide scale, COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY.

508. Hence, to expect young scholars, who have not studied the English language in its earlier forms, to explain the real difficulties of English construction, is in a high degree unreasonable; nor should such matters be brought before them at all until they have gained a thorough and familiar knowledge of the usual and regular constructions.

EXERCISES TO CHAPTER XVII.

ON ABBREVIATED AND INCOMPLETE EXPRESSION.

We have now one further question to ask, in taking up a sentence: namely, whether it is an incomplete one. If it is, it should be defined as such, and those words should be added which are necessary in order to enable us to parse it.

XXXII. Miscellaneous examples.

Wild ambition loves to slide, not stand.

Favors to none, to all she smiles extends;
Oft she rejects, but never once offends.

As night to stars, woe lustre gives to man.
We have no slaves at home; then why abroad?
God is thy law, thou mine.
His life will be safe, his possessions safe, his rank safe.
Death but entombs the body; life, the soul.
Not simple conquest, triumph is his aim.
Prayers and tears have moved me, gifts could never.
Patriots have toiled, and in their country's cause bled nobly.

Ruin from man is most concealed when near.

If rich, they go to enjoy; if poor, to retrench; if sick, to recover; if studious, to learn.

Take the terms the lady made
Ere conscious of the advancing aid.

I will not fight against thee unless compelled.

Whate'er the motive, pleasure is the mark.

This apparent exception, when examined, will be found to confirm the rule.

Thou madest man, he knows not why;
He thinks he was not born to die.

Why am I beaten? — Dost thou not know? — Nothing, sir, but that I am beaten. — Shall I tell you why? — Aye, sir, and wherefore.

I staggered a few paces, I know not whither.

To dally much with subjects mean and low
Proves that the mind is weak, or makes it so.

It touches you, my lord, as much as me.

They loved him not as a king, but as a party leader.

Beauty's tears are lovelier than her smile.

He looked as though the speed of thought were in his limbs.

Kings should groan for such advantages; but we, humbled as we are, should yearn for them.

Grovel in the dust! crouch! wild beast as thou art!

Much as he loved his wealth, he loved his children better.

His nose, large as were the others, bore them down into insignificance.

Come, you at least were twenty when you married; that makes you forty.

At thirty, man suspects himself a fool.

Before ten his senses were gone.

Had seen thee sooner, lad, but had to see the hounds kennelled first.

How dost? and how hast been these eighteen months?

Wilt take thy chance with me?

Sure of that? — Very sure.

Short his career, indeed, but ably run.

And what its worth, ask death-beds; they can tell.

How various his employments whom the world calls idle!

His lord's commands he ne'er withstood,
Though small his pleasure to do good.

Why this so rare? Because forgot of all the day of death.
And what if I call my servants, and give thee to their charge?

What though the places of their rest
No priestly knee hath ever pressed?
Men in their loose unguarded hours they take;
Not that themselves are wise, but others weak.

Not but they thought me worth a ransom, but they were not safe when I was there.

How blessings brighten as they take their flight!
Great God! that such a father should be mine!

O for that warning voice, which he who saw
The Apocalypse heard cry in Heaven aloud!

Alas both for the deed and for the cause!-

Phœbus! what a name to fill the speaking trump of future fame!

What a cold-blooded rascal it is!

O that I had her here, to tear her limb-meal!

If the malignant eye of her father had seen them at the moment!

How if I thrust my hand into your breast and tore your heart out?

Up, Guards! and at them!

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The references are to paragraphs.

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EXTRACTS

FOR FURTHER PRACTICE IN PARSING;

WITH NOTES, AND REFERENCES

TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. From De Foe's "Robinson Crusoe."

The next day[1] I made another voyage; and now, having plundered[2] the ship of what was portable and fit to hand[3] out, I began with the cables. Cutting the great cables into pieces such as[4] I could move, I got two cables and a hawser on shore, with all the iron-work I could get; and having cut[2] down the spritsail-yard, and the mizzen-yard, and everything I could,[5] to make[3] a large raft, I loaded it with all these heavy goods, and came away. But my good luck began now to leave[6] me; for this raft was so unwieldy, and so overladen, that, after I had entered the little cove where I had landed the rest of my goods, not being[7] able to guide it so handily as I did[8] the other, it overset, and threw me and all my cargo into the water. As for[9] myself, it was no great harm, for I was near the

[1] 390. [2] 457. [3] 448. [4] 186. [5] i. e. everything that I could cut down. [6] 444. [7] More accurately, *I not being able*, etc. (461¶). [8] 493. [9] *As for*, an idiomatic phrase (507), equivalent to *so far as concerns*, or *as the case was about myself*.

shore; but as to[1] my cargo, it was a great part of it[2] lost, especially the iron,[3] which I expected[4] would have been of great use to me; however, when the tide was out, I got most of the pieces of cable ashore, and some of the iron, though with infinite labor; for I was fain to dip[5] for it into the water: a work[6] which fatigued me very much. After this, I went every day[7] on board, and brought away what I could get.

I had been now thirteen days[7] on shore, and had been eleven times[7] on board[8] the ship, in which time I had brought away all that one pair of hands could well be supposed capable to bring[9]; though I believe verily, had[10] the calm weather held, I should have brought away the whole ship, piece[11] by piece. But, preparing the twelfth time to go[5] on board, I found[12] the wind began to rise[13]; however, at low water I went on board, and though I thought[12] I had rummaged the cabin so effectually that nothing more could be found, yet I discovered a locker with drawers[14] in it,[14] in one of which I found two or three razors, and one pair of large scissors, with some[15] ten or a dozen of good knives and forks; in another I found about[16] thirty-six pounds' value in money — some European coin, some Brazil,[17] some pieces of eight, some gold, and some silver.

I smiled to myself at the sight of this money: "O drug!" said I, aloud, "what art thou good for? Thou art not worth[18] to me — no, not the taking[19] off the ground: one of those knives is worth[18] all

[1] i. e. so far as relates to. [2] *a great part of it* is appositive to *it* next above, or a modified repetition of the latter. [3] Appositive to *great part*. [4] *I expected* is parenthetic, and *which* is immediate subject of *would have been*. We not seldom see now-a-days, even in fairly good writers, such phrases as *whom* (instead of *who*) *I expected would have been;* but they are incorrect. [5] **448**. [6] Appositive to *to dip for it*, etc. [7] **390**. [8] For *on board of*, by abbreviation, so that *on board* (like *alongside*, **504**) has become a preposition-phrase: **326**. [9] **448**: more usual now is *able to bring*, or *capable of bringing* (**445**). [10] **471**. [11] A sort of apposition to *ship:* = one piece of it by (i. e. along with or after) another piece. Or, the three words may be parsed as an adverbial phrase, = *in pieces*, or *piecemeal*. [12] **436**. [13] **444**. [14] **401**. [15] *some* makes the following numerals more indefinite. [16] *about* also makes the numeral indefinite: I found the value of about (i. e. near, in the neighborhood of, not far from) so much: a prepositional phrase treated like a simple noun (**402-3**). [17] i. e. Brazil coin; Brazil used as adjective (**203**, end). [18] The adjective *worth* (also, rarely, *worthy*) is followed by a noun expressing the value without the help of a preposition, as if the adjective governed directly an objective case, as some adjectives do a dative (**366**, last half). [19] *the* gives *taking* the character of a noun (**447**).

this heap; I have no manner of use for thee — e'en remain where thou art, and go to the bottom, as[1] a creature whose life is not worth[2] saving.[3]" However, upon second thoughts, I took it away; and, wrapping all this in a piece of canvas, I began to think[4] of making[5] another raft; but while I was preparing this, I found the sky overcast,[6] and the wind began to rise, and in a quarter of an hour it blew a fresh gale[7] from the shore. It[8] presently occurred to me, that it[8] was in vain to pretend[9] to make[4] a raft with the wind off shore; and that it[8] was my business to be gone[9] before the tide of flood began, otherwise I might not be able to reach[10] the shore at all. Accordingly, I let myself down into the water, and swam across the channel which lay between the ship and the sands, and even that[11] with difficulty enough, partly with the weight of the things[12] I had about me, and partly the roughness of the water; for the wind rose very hastily, and before it[13] was quite high water it[13] blew a storm.[7]

But I had got home to my little tent, where[14] I lay, with all my wealth[15] about me,[15] very secure.[16] It blew very hard all night,[17] and in the morning when I looked out, behold,[18] no more ship was to be seen!

II. From Addison's "Spectator."

The gentleman next in esteem and authority among us is another bachelor, who is a member of the Inner Temple; a man[19] of great probity, wit, and understanding; but he has chosen his place of residence rather to obey[20] the direction of an old humorsome father than in pursuit of his own inclinations. He was placed there to study[20] the laws of the land, and is the most learned of any of the house in those of the stage. Aristotle and Longinus are much better understood by

[1] i. e. as a creature goes. [2] See note 18, on the page next preceding this. [3] *saving* admits of being regarded either as noun or as infinitive, but preferably as infinitive. [4] **444.** [5] **445.** [6] **389.** [7] **362a.** [8] **163a.** [9] **443.** [10] **448**: *able* is used thus only with a root-infinitive; we say *capable of reaching, capable of an effort*, etc. [11] i. e. and even that (the swimming) I did with, etc. [12] **184.** [13] **163b.** [14] **437.** [15] **401.** [16] **355.** [17] **390.** [18] An imperative, as if addressed to the readers, calling them to take notice; it may be regarded as an interjection (**335**). [19] Appositive to *bachelor:* **375.** [20] **448.**

him than Littleton or Coke. The father sends up every post[1] questions relating to marriage-articles, leases, and tenures in the neighborhood; all which[2] questions he agrees with an attorney to answer[3] and take[3] care of in the lump. He is studying the passions themselves, when he should be inquiring into the debates among men which arise from them. He knows the argument of each of the orations of Demosthenes and Tully, but not one case in the reports of our own courts. No one ever took him for a fool, but none, except his intimate friends, know[4] he has a great deal of wit. This turn makes him at once both[5] disinterested and agreeable. As few of his thoughts are drawn from business, they are most of them[6] fit for conversation. His taste of books is a little[7] too just for the age he lives in[8]; he has read all, but approves of very few. His familiarity with the customs, manners, actions, and writings of the ancients makes him a very delicate observer of what occurs to him in the present world. He is an excellent critic, and the time of the play is his hour of business; exactly at five[9] he passes through New Inn, crosses through Russell Court, and takes a turn at Will's till the play begins; he has his shoes rubbed[10] and his periwig powdered[10] at the barber's as[11] you go into the Rose. It is for the good of the audience when he is at a play,[12] for the actors have an ambition to please[13] him.

III. From Thackeray's "Vanity Fair."

Miss Crawley was, in consequence, an object of great respect when she came to Queen's Crawley; for she had a balance at her banker's[14] which would have made her beloved anywhere.

What a dignity it[15] gives an old lady, that balance at the banker's[16]! How tenderly we look at her faults, if she is a relative (and may[17]

[1] 390. [2] 437. [3] 448, second half; the expression is not quite accurate; *agrees with* is used in the sense of *engages*. [4] 436. [5] 506. [6] *most of them* is appositive to *they*, or a modified repetition of it; *most of them are* would be enough. [7] *a little*, adverbial objective (390), *little* being used as a noun. [8] 184. [9] 495. [10] Objective predicate (369): a peculiar phrase, in which *has* takes the sense of *causes to be*. [11] Elliptical: = which you come upon, or see, as you, etc. [12] Adverbial clause in the sense of a substantive one, anticipated by *it* as grammatical subject (163a); as if it were: that he is at a play is for the good, etc. [13] 448. [14] 495. [15] *it*, repetition by anticipation of the real subject, *that balance*. [16] 501 (and so the following sentences, to the end of the piece). [17] 480.

every reader have a score of such); what a kind, good-natured old creature[1] we find her! How the junior partner of Hobbs and Dobbs leads her smiling[2] to the carriage with the lozenge upon it,[3] and the fat wheezy coachman[3]! How, when she comes to pay us a visit, we generally find an opportunity to let[4] our friends know her station in the world! We say (and with perfect truth), I wish[5] I had Miss MacWhirter's signature to a check for five thousand pounds. She would n't miss it, says your wife. She is my aunt, say you, in an easy, careless way, when your friend asks if Miss MacWhirter is any relative. Your wife is perpetually sending her[6] little testimonies of affection; your little girls work endless worsted baskets, cushions, and footstools for her. What a good fire there is in her room when she comes to pay[4] you[6] a visit, although your wife laces her stays without one! The house during her stay assumes a festive, neat, warm, jovial, snug appearance not visible at other seasons. You yourself, dear sir, forget to go[7] to sleep after dinner, and find yourself all[8] of a sudden[9] (though you invariably lose) very fond of a rubber. What good dinners you have — game[10] every day, Madeira,[10] and no end of[11] fish[10] from London. Even the servants in the kitchen share in the general prosperity; and somehow, during the stay of Miss MacWhirter's fat coachman, the beer is[12] grown much stronger, and the consumption of tea and sugar in the nursery (where her maid takes her meals) is not regarded in the least.[9] Is it so, or is it not so? I appeal to the middle classes. Ah, gracious powers! I wish you would send me an old aunt — a maiden aunt[13] — an aunt with a lozenge on her carriage and a front of light coffee-colored hair. How my children should work workbags for her, and my Julia and I would make her comfortable! Sweet — sweet vision[14]! Foolish — foolish dream[14]!

IV. From Hawthorne's "The Intelligence Office."

The next[15] that entered was a man beyond the middle age,[16] bearing the look of one who knew the world and his own course in it. He

[1] **369.** [2] Appositive to *partner*: **376.** [3] **401.** [4] **448.** [5] **436.** [6] **139.** [7] **444.** [8] *all* in this phrase is used as adverb: = altogether, quite. [9] **315.** [10] Combined apposition to *dinners*. [11] Colloquial phrase: = without end, unlimited; as if *fish* were the noun co-ordinate with *game*, etc., and *no end of* an adjective phrase qualifying it. [12] **289**, end. [13] **377.** [14] **499.** [15] Adjective as noun, **144.** [16] Adjective prepositional phrase, **401.**

had just alighted from a handsome private carriage, which had orders to wait[1] in the street while its owner transacted his business. This person came up to the desk with a quick determined step, and looked the Intelligencer[2] in the face with a resolute eye: though, at the same time, some secret trouble gleamed from it in red and dusky light.

"I have an estate to dispose[1] of,[3]" said he, with a brevity that seemed characteristic.

"Describe it," said the Intelligencer.

The applicant proceeded to give the boundaries of his property, its nature, comprising tillage, pasture, woodland, and pleasure-grounds, in ample circuit; together with a mansion-house, in the construction of which it had been his object to realize[4] a castle in the air, hardening[5] its shadowy walls into granite, and rendering[6] its visionary splendor perceptible[6] to the awakened eye. Judging[7] from his description, it was beautiful enough to vanish like a dream, yet substantial enough to endure for centuries. He spoke, too, of the gorgeous furniture, the refinements of upholstery, and all the luxurious artifices that combined to render this a residence where life might flow onward in a stream of golden days, undisturbed by the ruggedness which fate loves to fling into it.

"I am a man of strong will," said he in conclusion; "and at my first setting-out in life, as a poor, unfriended youth, I resolved to make myself the possessor of such a mansion and estate as this, together with the abundant revenue necessary to uphold it. I have succeeded to the extent of my utmost wish. And this is the estate which I have now concluded to dispose of.[8]"

"And your terms[9]?" asked the Intelligencer, after taking down the particulars with which the stranger had supplied him.

"Easy — abundantly easy[10]!" answered the successful man, smiling, but with a stern and almost frightful contraction of the brow, as if to quell[11] an inward pang. "I have been engaged in various sorts of business — a distiller,[12] a trader to Africa, an East India

[1] **448.** [2] Historically a dative, or indirect object, like the classical "ethical dative;" but may be parsed as object of *looked* used transitively, as if = *looked at.* [3] **323**, end. [4] **163a.** [5] Qualifies the pronoun contained in *his* and implied as subject of the action expressed by *to realize.* [6] Objective predicate, **369.** [7] Used in an absolute way, or as if with an indefinite subject understood: = "if one might judge." [8] **323.** [9] Incomplete expression (**483**): add *are what.* [10] Incomplete, **490.** [11] i. e. as if he did it in order to quell. [12] Appositional to *I.*

merchant, a speculator in the stocks — and in the course of these affairs have contracted an encumbrance of a certain nature. The purchaser of the estate shall merely be required to assume this burden to himself."

"I understand you," said the man of Intelligence, putting his pen behind his ear; "I fear that no bargain can be negotiated on these conditions. Very probably the next possessor may acquire the estate with a similar encumbrance; but it will be of his own contracting,[1] and will not lighten your burden in the least."

"And am I to live on,[2]" fiercely exclaimed the stranger, "with the dirt of these accursed acres and the granite of this infernal mansion crushing down my soul? How[3] if I should turn the edifice into an almshouse or a hospital, or tear it down and build a church?"

"You can at least make the experiment," said the Intelligencer; "but the whole matter is one which you must settle for yourself."

The man of deplorable success withdrew, and got into his coach, which rattled off lightly over the wooden pavements, though laden with the weight of much land, a stately house, and ponderous heaps of gold, all compressed into an evil conscience.

V. From Carlyle's "Heroes and Hero-Worship."

We[4] have undertaken to discourse[5] here for a little[6] on Great Men, their manner of appearance in our world's business, how[7] they have shaped themselves in the world's history, what ideas men formed of them, what work they did: on Heroes, namely,[8] and on their reception and performance — what I call Hero-worship and the Heroic[9] in human affairs. Too evidently this is a large topic; deserving quite other treatment than[10] we can expect to give it at present. A large topic;[11] indeed, an illimitable one; wide as Universal History itself. For, as I take it, Universal History, the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at bottom the History of the Great Men who have worked here. They were the leaders of men, these great ones; the modelers, patterns, and in

[1] 401. [2] 448. [3] 496. [4] 157. [5] 444. [6] 315: i. e. little while. [7] This and the following substantive clauses governed by *on* in l. 1, like *manner of appearance* in l. 2. [8] = if I mention them by name. [9] 144a. [10] Abbreviated (494): = than the one which we can, etc. [11] Repetition of the same words above, l. 6.

a wide sense creators, of whatsoever the general mass of men contrived to do[1] or to attain[1]; all things that we see standing accomplished in the world are properly the outer material result, the practical realization and embodiment, of Thoughts that dwelt in the Great Men sent into the world; the soul of the whole world's history, it[2] may justly be considered, were[3] the history of these. Too clearly it is a topic we shall do no justice to[4] in this place:

One comfort is, that Great Men, taken up in any way, are profitable company. We cannot look, however imperfectly, upon a great man without gaining[5] something by him. He is the living light-fountain[6] which[7] it is good and pleasant to be near. The light[8] which enlightens, which has enlightened the darkness of the world; and this,[9] not as[10] a kindled lamp only, but rather as[10] a natural luminary shining by the gift of Heaven; a flowing light-fountain,[11] as I say, of native original insight, of manhood and heroic nobleness; in whose radiance all souls feel that it is well with them. On any terms whatsoever,[12] you will not grudge to wander[1] in such neighborhood for a while.

VI. From Emerson's "Self-Reliance."

There is a time in every man's education when he arrives at the conviction that[13] envy is ignorance[13]; that imitation is suicide; that[13] he must take himself, for better, for worse,[14] as his portion; that[13] though[15] the wide universe is full of good, no kernel of nourishing corn can come to him but[16] through his toil bestowed[17] on that plot of ground which is given to him to till.[18] The power which resides in him is new in nature, and none but[19] he knows what that is which he can do; nor does he know until he has tried. Not for nothing one face, one character, one fact, makes much impression on him, and

[1] 444. [2] 163b. [3] Subjunctive (233.2, 273): here = would be, might be considered. [4] 323. [5] 445. [6] 119c. [7] 366. [8] Repetition of *light* in *light-fountain*, l. 10. [9] i. e. this thing just stated, or its enlightening the darkness of the world: = and this it has done. [10] *as* here = in the character of; or supply *might do* after *only* and *luminary*. [11] Repetition, again, of *light-fountain* above, l. 10. [12] Incomplete expression, for whatever they may be. [13] Substantive clauses: 434d, f. [14] i. e. whether for better or for worse: *better*, *worse*, 144a. [15] 432f. [16] Here conjunction: = unless, or otherwise than. [17] 376 [18] 448. [19] Conjunction, as above.

another none.[1] This sculpture in the memory is not without[2] pre-established harmony. The eye was placed where one ray should fall, that it might testify of that particular ray. We but[3] half[4] express ourselves, and are ashamed of that divine idea which each of us represents. It may be safely trusted as[5] proportionate and of good issues, so[6] it be faithfully imparted; but God will not have his work made[7] manifest by cowards. A man is relieved and gay when he has put his heart into his work, and done his best; but what[8] he has said or done otherwise shall[9] give him no peace. It is a deliverance which does not deliver. In the attempt his genius deserts him; no muse befriends; no invention, no hope.[10]

Trust thyself: every heart vibrates to that iron string. Accept the place[11] the divine providence has found for you, the society of your contemporaries, the connection of events. Great men have always done so, and confided themselves childlike[12] to the genius of their age, betraying[13] their perception that[14] the absolutely trustworthy[15] was seated at their heart, working through their hands, predominating in all their being. And we are now men, and must accept in the highest mind the same transcendent destiny; and not[16] minors and invalids in a protected corner, not cowards fleeing[17] before a revolution, but guides, redeemers, and benefactors, obeying[18] the Almighty effort, and advancing[19] on Chaos and the Dark.[15]

VII. From Bacon's Essays.

Revenge is a kind of wild justice; which the more[17] man's nature runs to,[18] the more[17] ought law to weed[19] it out. For as for[20] the first wrong, it doth[21] but[22] offend the law; but the revenge of that wrong putteth[21] the law out of office. Certainly, in taking revenge, a man is but[22] even with his enemy; but in passing it over, he is superior.

[1] Abbreviated clause: **485.** [2] Prepositional adjective-phrase: **401.** [3] Here adverb: = only. [4] **313**d, end. [5] *as* (as usual, **494**), by abbreviation: = as one that is proportionate, etc., might be trusted. [6] Here conjunction: = if. [7] Objective predicate (**369**), but with the implication of allowance: = will not allow it to be made manifest. [8] **181.** [9] *shall* of promise or threatening; **284.** [10] Abbreviated (**495**, end): = there is for him no, etc. [11] **184.** [12] Best regarded as adverbial predicate: **355.** [13] Appositive adjective: **376.** [14] **434**f. [15] **144**a. [16] i. e. and we are not. [17] **313**e. [18] **323.** [19] **441**a. [20] See p. 1, note 9. [21] **243, 279**; and so through the piece. [22] Here adverb: = only.

For it[1] is a prince's part to pardon.[2] And Solomon, I am sure, saith,[3] "It is the glory of a man to pass by an offense." That which is past is gone, and irrevocable; and wise men have enough to do[4] with things present and to come[5]: therefore they do but trifle with themselves, that[6] labor in past matters. There is no man[7] doth a wrong for the wrong's sake; but thereby to purchase[4] himself[8] profit, or pleasure, or honor, or the like. Therefore why should I be angry with a man for loving[9] himself better than[10] me? And if any man should do wrong merely out of ill-nature, why[11]? Yet it is but like the thorn or briar, which prick[12] and scratch[12] because they can do no other.[13] The most tolerable sort of revenge is for those wrongs which[14] there is no law to remedy; but then, let[15] a man take heed[16] the revenge be[17] such as[18] there is no law to punish: else a man's enemy is still beforehand, and it is two[19] for one. Some, when they take revenge, are desirous[16] the party should know whence it cometh; this is the more generous.[20] For the delight seemeth to be[21] not so much in doing[9] the hurt as in making[9] the party repent; but base and crafty cowards are like the arrow that flieth in the dark. Cosmus, Duke of Florence, had a desperate saying against perfidious or neglecting friends, as if[22] those wrongs were unpardonable: "You shall[23] read (saith he) that we are commanded to forgive[24] our enemies; but you never read that we are commanded to forgive[24] our friends." But yet the spirit of Job was in a better tune: "Shall we (saith he) take good at God's hands, and not be content to take[25] evil also?" And so[26] of friends in a[27] proportion. This is certain: that a man that studieth revenge keeps his own wounds green, which otherwise would heal and do well. Public revenges are for the most part fortunate; as[28] that for the death of Cæsar, for the death of Pertinax, for the death of Henry the Third of France, and many more.

[1] **163a.** [2] **443.** [3] **243, 279**; and so through the piece. [4] **448.** [5] **450c.** [6] **180** end. [7] **184** end. [8] **139.** [9] **445.** [10] **330d.** [11] i. e. why be angry? [12] The singular is more usual (and correct) after nouns joined by *or*. [13] *no other*, old style for *no other thing*, or *nothing else*. [14] Object of *remedy*. [15] **477.** [16] **436.** [17] **233.2, 234.** [18] **186.** [19] i. e. two enemies instead of one. [20] i. e. kind of revenge. [21] **450a.** [22] i. e. a saying which read as if (**494**), or which implied that. [23] Old style, implying a promise. [24] **449, 304-5.** [25] **448**, end. [26] Abbreviated (**495**): = and the case is so of (i. e. respecting, in regard to), etc. [27] Present usage omits the *a*. [28] Abbreviated (**494**): as that, etc., was fortunate.

But in private revenges it is not so. Nay, rather, vindictive persons live the life[1] of witches; who[2] as they are mischievous, so end they[2] unfortunate.

VIII. From Longfellow's "Evangeline."

Somewhat apart from the village, and nearer the basin of Minas,
Benedict Bellefontaine, the wealthiest farmer of Grand-Pré,
Dwelt on his goodly acres; and with him, directing his household,
Gentle Evangeline lived, his child, and the pride of the village.
Stalworth and stately in form was the man of seventy winters;
Hearty and hale was he, an oak that is covered with snow-flakes;
White as the snow were his locks, and his cheeks as brown as the oak-leaves.
Fair was she to behold,[3] that maiden of seventeen summers.
Black were her eyes as the berry that grows on the thorn by the wayside—
Black,[4] yet how softly they gleamed[5] beneath the brown shade of her tresses!
Sweet was her breath as the breath of kine that feed in the meadows.
When in the harvest heat she bore to the reapers at noontide
Flagons of home-brewed ale, ah! fair in sooth was the maiden.
Fairer was she when,[6] on Sunday morn, while the bell from its turret
Sprinkled with holy sounds the air, as the priest with his hyssop
Sprinkles the congregation, and scatters blessings upon them,
Down the long street she passed, with her chaplet of beads and her missal,
Wearing her Norman cap, and her kirtle of blue, and the earrings
Brought in the olden time from France, and since, as an heirloom,
Handed down from mother to child, through long generations.
But a celestial brightness, a more ethereal beauty,
Shone on her face and encircled her form, when, after confession,
Homeward serenely she walked, with God's benediction upon her.
When she had passed, it seemed like the ceasing[7] of exquisite music.

[1] **362a.** [2] Either *who* or *they* is strictly superfluous. [3] **448.** [4] Repetition of the same word in the preceding line, as if = black, indeed, her eyes were. [5] **501.** [6] Connects immediately with *she passed*, three lines below. [7] **366.**

IX. From Scott's "Lady of the Lake."

"Have, then, thy wish!"—He whistled shrill,[1]
And he was answered from the hill;
Wild as the scream of the curlew,
From crag to crag the signal flew.
Instant,[1] through copse and heath, arose
Bonnets and spears and bended bows;
On right, on left, above, below,
Sprung up at once the lurking foe;
From shingles gray their lances start,
The bracken bush sends forth the dart,
The rushes and the willow-wand
Are bristling into axe and brand,
And every tuft of broom gives life
To plaided warrior armed for strife.
That whistle garrisoned the glen
At once with full five hundred men,
As if the yawning hill to heaven
A subterranean host had given.
Watching their leader's beck and will,
All silent there they stood, and still.
Like the loose crags whose threatening mass
Lay tottering o'er the hollow pass,
As if an infant's touch could urge
Their headlong passage down[2] the verge,
With step and weapon forward flung,
Upon the mountain side they hung.
The mountaineer cast glance of pride
Along Benledi's living side,
Then fixed his eye and sable brow
Full on Fitz-James: "How say'st thou now?
These are Clan-Alpine's warriors true;
And, Saxon, I am Roderick Dhu!"

Fitz-James was brave;—though to his heart
The life-blood thrilled with sudden start,

[1] 313d. [2] 321d.

He manned himself with dauntless air,
Returned the chief[1] his[2] haughty stare,
His back against a rock he bore,
And firmly placed his foot before ; —
"Come[3] one, come[3] all! this rock shall fly
From its firm base as soon as I."
Sir Roderick marked, — and in his eyes
Respect was mingled with surprise,
And the stern joy which warriors feel
In[4] foemen worthy of their steel.
Short space he stood, — then waved his hand :
Down sunk the disappearing band ;
Each warrior vanished where he stood,
In broom or bracken, heath or wood :
Sunk brand and spear, and bended bow,
In osiers pale and copses low :
It seemed as if their mother Earth
Had swallowed up her warlike birth.
The wind's last breath had tossed in air
Pennon and plaid and plumage fair, —
The next but swept a lone hillside,
Where heath and fern were waving wide ;
The sun's last glance had glinted back
From spear and glaive, from targe and jack, —
The next, all unreflected, shone
On bracken green, and cold gray stone.

X. From Shakspeare's "Henry VIII."

Cromwell, I did not think to shed a tear,
In all my miseries ; but thou hast forced me,
Out of thy honest truth, to play the woman.
Let 's dry our eyes : and thus far hear me, Cromwell ;
And — when I am forgotten, as I shall be,
And sleep in dull cold marble, where no mention
Of me more must be heard of — say[5] I taught thee ;
Say, Wolsey — that once trod the ways of glory,

[1] 364. [2] i. e. the chief's. [3] Optative subjunctive, 479.
[4] i. e. joy in. [5] 436.

And sounded all the depths and shoals of honor —
Found thee a way, out of his wreck, to rise[1] in[2];
A sure and safe one, though thy master missed it;
Mark but my fall, and that that ruined me.
Cromwell, I charge thee, fling away ambition:
By that sin fell the angels; how can man, then,
The image of his Maker, hope to win by 't?
Love thyself last; cherish those hearts that hate thee;
Corruption wins not more than honesty.
Still in thy right hand carry gentle peace,
To silence envious tongues. Be just, and fear not;
Let all the ends thou aim'st at[2] be thy country's,
Thy God's, and truth's; then if thou fall'st, O Cromwell!
Thou fall'st a blessed martyr.
Serve the king; and — pr'ythee, lead me in:
There take an inventory of all I have,
To the last penny; 't is the king's; my robe,
And my integrity to heaven, is all
I dare now call mine own. O Cromwell, Cromwell!
Had I but served my God with half the zeal
I served my king,[3] he would not in mine age
Have left me naked to mine enemies!

XI. From Milton's "Paradise Lost."

These are thy glorious works, Parent of good!
Almighty! Thine this universal frame,
Thus wondrous fair; thyself how wondrous then[4]!
Unspeakable,[5] who sitt'st above these heavens,
To us invisible,[6] or dimly seen[6]
In these thy lowest works; yet these declare
Thy goodness beyond thought,[7] and power divine.
Speak, ye who best can tell, ye sons of light,
Angels; for ye behold him, and with songs
And choral symphonies, day[8] without night,

[1] 448. [2] 323. [3] i. e. that I served my king with. [4] i. e. how wondrous, then, art thou thyself! 481. [5] i. e. O unspeakable one. [6] Predicate adjective belonging to *who*: 355. [7] *beyond thought*, adjective prepositional phrase, 401. [8] Adverbial objective, 393.

Circle his throne rejoicing ; ye in heaven :
On earth join all ye creatures to extol
Him first, him last, him midst,[1] and without end.
Fairest of stars, last in the train of night,
If better thou belong not to the dawn,
Sure pledge of day, that crown'st the smiling morn
With thy bright circlet — praise him in thy sphere
While day arises, that sweet hour of prime.
Thou sun, of this great world both eye[2] and soul,[2]
Acknowledge him thy greater,[3] sound his praise
In thy eternal course, both when thou climb'st,
And when high noon hast gained, and when thou fall'st.
Moon, that now meet'st the orient sun, now fly'st,
With the fixed stars, fixed in their orb that flies ;
And ye five other wandering fires, that move
In mystic dance not without song, resound
His[4] praise, who out of darkness called up light.
Air, and ye elements, the eldest birth
Of nature's womb, that in quaternion run
Perpetual circle, multiform, and mix
And nourish all things, let your ceaseless change
Vary[5] to our great Maker still new praise.
Ye mists and exhalations, that now rise
From hill or steaming lake, dusky or gray,
Till the sun paint your fleecy skirts with gold,
In honor to the world's great Author rise[6] ;
Whether to deck with clouds the uncolored sky,
Or wet the thirsty earth with falling showers,
Rising or falling, still advance[6] his praise.
His praise, ye winds, that from four quarters blow,
Breathe[6] soft[7] or loud[7] ; and wave your tops, ye pines,
With every plant, in sign of worship wave.[6]
Fountains, and ye that warble, as ye flow,
Melodious murmurs,[8] warbling[9] tune[6] his praise.
Join voices, all ye living souls ; ye birds,

[1] i. e. midmost. [2] Apposition to *sun*, **375**. [3] Adjective as noun, **144** ; objective predicate to *him*, **369**. [4] Antecedent of *who*, as if *the praise of him who*, etc. [5] Used factitively, as if *produce in variety ; praise* is its object. [6] Imperative. [7] Adverbial predicate (**355**) to *his praise*. [8] Object of *warble*. [9] i. e. while ye warble.

That singing up to heaven-gate ascend,
Bear[1] on your wings and in your notes his praise.
Ye that in waters glide, and ye that walk
The earth, and stately tread, or lowly creep —
Witness if I be silent, morn[2] or even,[2]
To hill or valley, fountain or fresh shade,
Made vocal by my song, and taught his praise.[3]
Hail, universal Lord! be bounteous still
To give[4] us only good; and if the night
Have gathered aught of evil or concealed,[5]
Disperse it, as now light dispels the dark.

[1] Imperative. [2] **393.** [3] Might be called an adverbial objective (**391**); one of those passive constructions (**305**) in which the indirect instead of the direct object is made subject of the passive phrase, and the direct object is left as a kind of qualifier of the participle; *my song taught them his praise* becomes passively *they were taught his praise by my song*, instead of *his praise was taught them by my song*. [4] Belongs to *bounteous*, **448**. [5] i. e. have gathered or concealed aught.